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ABSTRACT

In a two-year study of the teaching of writing in inner city secondary schools, the writing episode was examined as an interaction of teacher roles--as instructor, policy implementer, and member of a professional community. After a period of field testing observation instruments--field notes, segment summaries, and first level data analysis in a matrix--the nonparticipant observers observed writing instruction in 14 classrooms; interviewed the teachers, using both an open format and questionnaire; and interviewed case study students, using both a constant assignment for all and an assignment from the individual class. In addition, the district anchors for ranking writing in the proficiency examination were distributed to teachers in seven cities across the country. These teachers ranked the same papers, estimated the number of students they had at various levels, answered the questionnaire, and had some of their students write on what assignments seemed the most helpful. The data from the seven cities provided a basis for the inference that the 14 classrooms were representative of other inner city classrooms. The findings suggest that teaching effectiveness is context dependent, that the institution has an internalized tradition which influences both teachers and students and helps shape writing instruction, and that the writing episode exhibits inconsistencies between composition theory and teaching practice, thereby raising questions about how effective instruction should be defined. (Author)

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"THE INTERACTION OF TEACHER ROLES IN THE TEACHING OF WRITING IN INNER-CITY SECONDARY SCHOOLS"

by

Miles Myers
&
Susan C. Thomas

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A STUDY OF EFFECTIVE WRITING INSTRUCTION
IN INNER-CITY SECONDARY SCHOOLS

University of California, Berkeley
Bay Area Writing Project
James R. Gray - Principal Investigator

CS 207 436

ABSTRACT

The Interaction of Teacher Roles in the Teaching of Writing in Inner City Secondary Schools

by

Miles Myers and Susan C. Thomas

In a two-year study of the teaching of writing in inner city secondary schools, the writing episode was examined as an interaction of teacher roles as instructor, policy implementer, and member of a professional community. After a period of field testing observation instruments--field notes, segment summaries, and first level data analysis in a matrix--the non-participant observers observed writing instruction in fourteen classrooms, interviewed the teachers, using both an open format and a questionnaire, and interviewed case study students, using both a constant assignment for all and an assignment from the individual class. In addition, the district anchors for ranking writing in the proficiency examination were distributed to teachers in seven cities across the country. These teachers ranked the same papers, estimated the number of students they had at various levels, answered the questionnaire, and had some of their students write on what assignments seemed the most helpful. The data from the seven cities provided a basis for the inference that the fourteen classrooms were representative of other inner city classrooms. The findings suggest that teaching effectiveness is context dependent, that the institution has an internalized tradition which influences both teachers and students and helps shape writing instruction, and that the writing episode exhibits inconsistencies between composition theory and teaching practice, thereby raising questions about how effective instruction should be defined.

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Beery, Natasha, "Assessment of Reliability of Observations," in Working Papers of the NIE Study of the Teaching of Writing in Inner City Secondary Schools, Bay Area Writing Project, University of California, Berkeley, April 1982.

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Miles Myers, Research Director
Susan Thomas, Research Coordinator

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1. INTRODUCTION: THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The increased interest in writing over the past ten years has been prompted, in part, by the efforts of educational policy makers to establish higher levels of literacy as a goal for the public schools. The College Entrance Examination Board has once again included an essay in its examinations, and composition has been added to the Elementary and Secondary Act (1978) and to the list of minimum graduation competencies adopted by many states. At one time, literacy meant being able to write one's name, and at other times it meant being able to write a complete sentence or a paragraph with few mechanical errors.

Today literacy means, among other things, composition beyond the sentence or beyond the mechanically correct paragraph. The National Assessment of Educational Progress is one of a number of agencies that have started to distinguish between "basics" or conventional literacy and the higher order skills. NAEP reports that in its national sample of students the "basics are fairly well under control, higher order skills are not" (NAEP Newsletter, Fall, 1982). In writing, 75% of the students were able to write complete sentences and paragraphs with few mechanical errors. But on a persuasive writing task that demanded analytic and logical skills, the higher levels of literacy, the percentage of 17 year-olds writing competent or better writing samples went down 6% between 1971 and 1980 -- from 21% to 15%. NAEP concludes its review of it results in various subject areas with the observation that the absence of higher level skills represents a major problem among 17 year olds: "For the learning areas presented here, the pattern is clear: ability to handle higher order skills is declining. Furthermore, the percentage of 17 year olds unable to demonstrate competence with such skills ranges from 38 percent to 58 percent, depending on the type of skills assessed." One question one can ask is whether these higher level skills are taught in classrooms.

In the effort to understand these higher level skills and their place in the school curriculum, researchers have asked what are the higher level skills in writing and how are they taught? The first question draws upon research in the nature of writing and learning to write and the second question draws upon research in the nature of teaching. In answering the first question, studies of the nature of writing and learning to write have until recently focused on the basic skills of handwriting, usage, and various forms at the sentence level and below. The T-unit

studies of Hunt (1965) and the sentence combining studies of Mellon (1969) and O'Hare (1973) are examples of this work. Recent studies of writing in units larger than the sentence--in those areas usually identified as higher level skills--have examined the internal structures of the text beyond the sentence (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) and the external structures of purpose (Kinneavy,1971), function (Searle,1969), procedural and mental processes (Emig,1971; Graves, 1973; Flower and Hayes, 1979), and situated context (Odell, 1982; Britton, 1975). When these recent studies and others like them are translated into definitions of higher level skills or mental processes, the result is usually an emphasis on the external structures of audience and purpose (Moffett,1968) and writing stages, such as using writing to discover and learn (Emig,1977), or an emphasis on the internal structures of various organizational patterns in units above the sentence (D'Angelo, 1975; Meyer,1978)

Answers to the second question about the nature of teaching have until recently ignored the way writing is taught in K-12 classrooms. Studies of teaching have focused primarily on reading and mathematics (Prophy and Evertson, 1974). In 1980 and 1981 three separate groups of researchers completed studies of writing instruction in K-12 classrooms. Two of the studies examined the teaching of writing in elementary school, one in eight classrooms in grades 3, 4, 5, 6 (Van Nostrand, Pettigrew, Shaw, et al., 1980) and the other in two classrooms, one a grade 6 classroom and the other a combination classroom of grades 2-3 (Clark and Floric, et al, 1981). The third study of two midwestern high schools examined the teaching of writing in numerous classrooms across the curriculum in grades 9 and 11 (Applebee, 1981).

Most studies of the teaching of writing take some assumptions about what the teaching of writing should be. Applebee, for instance, focusing on the goal of using writing for learning in different courses, assumes that this goal is best served by writing of at least paragraph length, the staging of writing assignments into prewriting, writing, and editing, thus requiring longer than ten or fifteen minutes for any single assignment, and the assignment of composing responsibilities to the student. On this last point, Applebee says, "One of the major problems with an overemphasis on mechanical writing tasks is that the students may never learn to use such resources as their own, relying instead on the structure or scaffold that the teacher has provided." Another example of an assumption about what should happen in the teaching of writing is

Britton's assumption that writing assignments should be directed to diverse audiences, giving students the ability to make adjustments and choices based on audience and purpose (Britton, et al, 1975).

Applebee in his study found that in general, teachers of English were more likely to provide help with the writing task than were teachers in other subject areas but that even in English classes writing activity was sharply restricted, with only about 10 percent of class time devoted to writing of at least paragraph length (1981:94). In all classes, only about 3 percent of the observed class time involved writing of at least paragraph length. Applebee also found that the writing in his classrooms was primarily directed to one audience, the teacher. This was also Britton's finding in his study of writing in English schools.

The Applebee study, then, left us with the conclusion that learning to use writing for learning was not well served by the writing instruction across the curriculum in high schools. Furthermore, because most of the assignments were directed to teacher audiences, writing instruction in high schools did not adequately address the problem of teaching students to adjust their writing to different functions and purposes. Students tended to learn one function and one purpose: tell the teacher what you know about something. Both of these goals of instruction in writing -- writing for learning and adjusting writing to different audiences -- are part of the definition, as noted earlier, of what are called the higher level skills, and these higher level skills, as noted earlier, are becoming the standard by which the effectiveness of schooling is measured.

The question addressed by this study is what are the teaching practices of writing teachers in inner city secondary schools. This question narrows the focus found in Applebee's study in two ways. First this study examines the practices of teachers who emphasize writing, not all teachers. For his purposes, Applebee observed teachers who were willing to participate and presumably some or many of them did not regard the teaching of writing as one of the primary goals of their instruction. Second, this present study examines the teaching of writing in inner city schools, and these schools differ markedly from the city school used in Applebee's study. One difference is that Applebee's city school had a minority population of 20.7%, and the schools used in this present study have a minority population of 90% or more.

Why focus on inner city secondary schools? Since the most pressing problems confronting public schools today are in inner cities, most experts agree that the ultimate test of any program of educational change is whether it can succeed there (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979:8). These problems tend to differ in degree, not in kind, from the problems from in other secondary schools:

> To be sure, the kinds of problems noted are not confined to urban or inner-city secondary schools. In varying degrees such problems are found in secondary schools in all geographic locations. The degree of intensity of many school problems in suburban and rural areas, however, is thought to be significantly less than that found in inner- city schools (Reed,1982:7-8).

The special character of these schools--more youth unemployment, lower achievement scores, more students from families of the poor--makes them schools of special interest when the goals of the public schools are being considered (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979:8). Any shift in educational policy, particularly in the literacy standard being demanded of students, should be based on information about the writing levels of inner city students and the inner city school environment for teaching and learning.

The study begins with two assumptions about what kind of writing assignments should occur in schools. First, teaching the new standards of higher levels of literacy requires that various assignments be addressed to diverse audiences, be staged so that writing is used for learning and not always for communicating to someone else, and be focused on some problems of form above the level of one or two sentences. This last kind of assignment requires extended periods of writing in class and some experiences with pieces of more than one paragraph.

This study also assumes, as did Applebee (1981:8), that a critical feature of writing assignments is the kind of scaffolding which is provided. Scaffolding is a process in language learning in which the adult caretaker relies on a skill the child has already developed -- dialogue, for instance -- to develop a new skill or new form of language interchange. For example, using the old skill of dialogue and frequent adult questions or prompts and student replies, the adult teacher can help the student develop the new skill of extended story telling. The adult teacher begins to decrease the questions or prompts to the student, thus

gradually withdrawing the dialogue which acts as a scaffold or support system to keep the language going while the student learns to tell the story without help.

This study, adopting the findings of a previous study of the different levels of writing competency in a city school district (Myers,1982), assumes that writers in the beginning of writing development need assignments which encourage fluency, requiring a dialogue or conversational form as a support system to get the language going; writers in the middle range of writing development in schools need assignments which encourage focus, requiring diverse audiences and purposes to learn the necessary adjustments; and writers in the upper ranges of of writing development and competency need assignments which encourage attention to form, requiring writing of several paragraphs in length and papers using different methods of analysis. This study assumes, therefore, that the assignments which teach higher levels of literacy -- using writing for learning, diversifying audience, and examining form -- are appropriately stressed only at particular points in the development of writing ability. Some things come first.

Thus far, the study has proposed to study teaching as if there were one measure of effectiveness: does the teacher teach what the writing profession (primarily researchers) says should be taught if one is trying to teach the higher levels of literacy through writing instruction? In other words, does the teacher teach writing for learning, diversifying audience, and examining form to the students at the proper time? This single measure of teaching effectiveness assumes that effective teachers learn from research what they must do to teach a student to learn to write and then they go to classroom and do it. This single measure of teaching effectiveness assumes that if whatever is needed for the student to learn is not happening, then the reason must be ineffective teaching. This point is made explicitly by Charles Cooper, speaking for the Committee on Research of the National Council of Teachers of English, in the introduction to Applebee's study (1981:xiii): "Ever as we point to the very real institutional constraints in American high schools -- poor working conditions for teachers, crowded classes -- we can still acknowledge the school-based causes of the writing crisis: lack of writing and poor instruction."

This study proposes to study teaching with another measure of effectiveness, in addition to the one measuring the length and frequency of different types

of assignments. This second measure of effectiveness asks a different question: do the teacher's assignments appear to be adapted to the context? In this second question, instead of asking whether the assignments fit the students, the first question, we asked whether the assignment fit the context in which it occurred. In a review of studies of teaching, Dreeben (1978) has observed that these studies have too often focused on a single activity, such as the student writing something, and ignored the many variables that constitute a classroom. "It is not possible," he argued, "to study classroom instruction without building the properties of classrooms explicitly into the formulation because teachers deal with classroom conditions as much as they deal with individual students" (1978:10). School curriculum policies, classroom interruptions, class size, attendance, material resources--these are but a few of the classroom conditions which appear to influence instruction.

Dreeben also observed that teaching, instead of being a single activity, "consists of a cluster of activities performed simultaneously, sequentially, and in response to changing conditions"(1978:10) This seems especially true of teaching writing, which may have both prewriting and postwriting activities which go beyond the boundaries of the time spent writing and which may be embedded within other instructional programs such as reading. This is also consistent with the view that most teachers have of their work--many simultaneous events/demands occurring within the same time frame. Barr and Dreeben have commented on the failure of many studies of teaching to consider simultaneous events or teacher roles: "Two characteristics of classroom research limit its usefulness: the tendency to examine only a portion of the events occurring within classes, ignoring others which may bear on the productive process, and the tendency to ignore the contextual properties of classrooms" (Barr and Dreeben, 1980:151).

Therefore, a study of teaching requires a unit of analysis not limited to just the time spent writing or even just the lesson or occasion for writing. A model developed by Harnischfeger and Wiley (1976: 203), attempting to avoid an oversimplification of the classroom situation, proposed several units of analysis within a single frame (see Figure 1; figures are at end of each section). We modified the Harnischfeger and Wiley model, organizing the different dimensions of analysis around the different roles that teachers play in the school system. The aim of the present study is to describe how these different roles or different organizational levels of the school system influence the writing

episode in selected classrooms.

One limitation of the present study is that the pupil's pursuits and background are not investigated. We do examine the overall achievement of the pupil in the district proficiency exam, using Myers' study (1982) as background, and we know the reported past grades and proficiency scores of the case study students, but we do not examine other influences. Two examples of this kind of data are the two charts below showing the outside of school writing reported by case study students and the people outside of school who write and who are known by case study students:

Types of Writing Done Outside of School
by Proficiency Score Category

	Proficiency Score Category									
	Low N = 8		Just Below N = 34		Passing N = 33		High N = 38		Total N = 113	
Type of Writing	X	sd	X	sd	X	sd	X	sd	X	sd
Make Lists	2.6	1.4	2.9	1.3	3.4	1.4	2.9	1.4	3.0	1.4
Write Cards, Letters, or Notes	2.4	1.3	2.9	1.5	2.8	1.4	2.9	1.2	2.8	1.4
Keep a Journal or Diary	3.4	1.4	3.3	1.7	4.3	1.3	4.1	1.4	3.9	1.5
Write Poetry or Stories	3.3	1.5	3.7	1.6	3.8	1.5	4.1	1.1	3.9	1.4
Fill Out Forms	3.5	1.4	3.5	1.4	3.7	1.3	3.6	1.3	3.6	1.3

Relationship (to the student)
of the person outside of school
who writes regularly

Relationship	f	%
Friend	35	44.9
Mother	16	20.5
Sister	7	9.0
Brother	6	7.7
Grandmother	4	5.1
Father	3	3.8
Other Relative	7	9.0
Total Responses	78	100.0

The proposed study, therefore, focuses on the teacher's different roles and responsibilities influencing the writing episode: (1) at the level of the Lesson, the teacher is an Instructor, giving the assignments, planning the lessons, and responding to student writing,

and establishing routines; (2) at the level of the Period, the teacher is a Manager, managing student attendance patterns, class interruptions, discipline problems, and resources for teaching; (3) at the level of Governance, the teacher is a Policy Adviser/Implementer, attempting to link policy and practice loosely or tightly; and (4) at the level of the Profession, the teacher is a Member of a Professional Community with a given set of implicit and explicit values. At the center of these various levels is the Writing Episode, which has length of time and generates writing at different levels of writing competency.

The design of the study, therefore, is shaped by two primary questions: (1) what writing do students do in writing classes in the inner city and (2) what influences the way writing is taught (Lesson, Period, Governance, and Profession)? The first question assumes that writing assignments must vary to fit the needs of different student, and the second question assumes that writing assignments must vary to fit classroom contexts.

Two kinds of data collection and analysis are used, the first focusing on the Class at the level of Writing Episode, Lesson, and Period and the second focusing on the Institution at the level of Governance and Profession. Data collection for studying the Class comes primarily from the Observational Study of fourteen classrooms, the Writing Sample Study, Interviews of Teachers and Students, and Part A of the Questionnaire Study. Data Collection for the Institution (Governance and Profession) came primarily from Interviews of administrators of educational policy and teachers and from Part B of the Questionnaire Study.

At all times, the study aimed for a convergence between researcher and participant perspectives, recognizing that the perspectives of participants had survival value and that these perspectives were often implicit, unstated, or sometimes not consciously recognized by the participants. The report that follows begins with a review of the design of the study and then describes the Writing Episodes observed in inner city classrooms. The chapters that follow describe the within-class interactions, focusing on the Lesson (Chapter 4) and the Period (Chapter 5), and the between-class interactions, focusing on Governance (Chapter 4) and the Profession (Chapter 7). Chapter 8 summarizes the findings of the study and offers some speculation about the results.

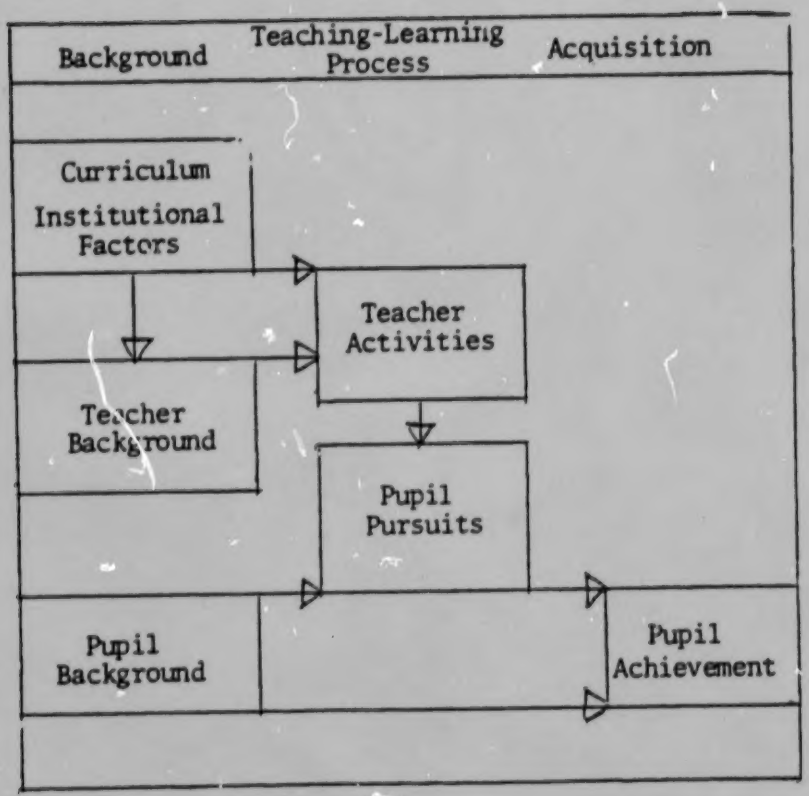

Background
Teaching-Learning Process
Acquisition
Curriculum
Institutional Factors
Teacher Activities
Teacher Background
Pupil Pursuits
Pupil Background
Pupil Achievement

Figure 1

II. THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The design of the study focused on fourteen classrooms in five secondary schools located in the inner city of a large urban school district. The urban characteristics of the city were evident in such documents as a 1981 report from the NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund showing that the city had the highest unemployment in the area, that youths 16-21 were the largest group of unemployed, and that Blacks in this age category had three times the unemployment rate of whites.

Each of the classrooms were in schools which had many of the characteristics associated with the inner city school, including the fact that the majority of students came from low income families and from ethnic minorities. According to statistics from the district's most recent ESEA Title I report, more than half of the students in each of the five schools were assigned to district EDY programs (Education of Disadvantaged Youth), and the district said these programs were "designed to upgrade the educational opportunities of children from low income areas and not a general aid program." In addition, in each of the five schools minority student populations constituted 90% or more of the total school population and in four of the five schools almost 15% or more of the students came from homes in which another language was spoken:

SCHOOL	SECOND LANGUAGE IN THE HOME	RACIAL DISTRIBUTION IN THE SCHOOL				
		Black	Hispanic	Asian	Native American	Other White
A	22%	76.2	7.0	12.5	.4	2.6
B	0	96.8	1.3	.4	.1	1.3
C	14.5	71.8	19.1	2.9	1.0	5.2
D	14.5	52.1	9.7	28.9	.7	8.7
E	40.9	39.3	21.5	28.9	.3	9.7

The report that follows is organized around five units of analysis: (1) the Writing Episode, the time period beginning when the student puts a pencil or pen to paper during a class period and ending when the student stops writing; (2) the Lesson, the segment of the class period in which writing assignments, changing

plans, shifting activities, and responses to writing occur; (3) the Class Period, the time period beginning with the bell to open class and ending with the bell to end class (all five schools had bells); (4) Governance, the policies identified by 35 informants as having some important influence on the Writing Episode; and, (5) the Profession, the attitudes and beliefs about writing in the teachers' professional community (Figure 2).

These five units of analysis were not five different research teams. The research design had two primary divisions, those instruments focusing on the Class (Writing Episode, Lesson, and Period) and those instruments focusing on the Institution (Governance and Profession). However, there was overlap in the use of instruments because some instruments were used to collect data on both the class and the institution. What follows is a description of the Sampling Procedures, the Data Collection Procedures, and the Data Analysis Procedures.

SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Pseudonyms are used for the school district (Mapleton), and the individuals in the three populations sampled: (1) teachers, fourteen (14) from the local sample and one hundred and seventeen (117) from the national sample; (2) students, one hundred and seventeen (117) from the local sample; and, (3) educator/policy makers, thirty-five (35) from the state, county, and local level, six of these thirty-five being teachers.

A. TEACHER SAMPLES

Five criteria were used to select the fourteen classrooms: (1) the classrooms were enrolling students from the inner city of the district, not some other area within the district; (2) they contained some writing instruction; (3) they were at various grade levels--9, 10, 11, and 12; (4) they had students at different perceived levels of achievement and in different courses emphasizing writing--general, remedial, composition elective, and functional (Journalism), and (5) they had teachers with a reported diversity of approach and experience.

The following fourteen teachers were selected:

Mosswood High School

Newman	Grade 10	Advanced English
Ellis	Grade 10	Remedial English
Woodward	Grade 12	General English

Hudson High School

O'Neil	Grade 12	Journalism II
Sanders	Grade 11	General English
Orozco	Grade 10-12	Bilingual English
Siguieros	Grade 10-12	Bilingual English

Mapleton Technical

Grover	Grade 12	Advanced English

Mapleton High School

Clay	Grade 11-12	Composition Course
Merrill	Grade 11-12	Composition Course
Hayward	Grade 12	Remedial English
Barnes	Grade 12	Remedial English

Riverview Junior High School

Hopkins	Grade 9	General English
Gordon	Grade 9	General English

In addition, in seven major cities in different parts of the country, we hired teacher coordinators to secure 20 teacher-responses each to a two-part questionnaire. 117 teachers completed the questionnaire, providing information which could be used to determine how representative the local teacher sample was. These 117 teachers were selected by local coordinators in each city from the local population of inner city teachers. Tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 show the data

on the local and national teachers.

One difference between the two groups was that the local teachers have slightly less experience (Tables 3 and 4). However, national and local teachers taught almost the same number of hours each week (21.7 for national; 22.9 for local), almost four and one-half hours each day, and spend from seven to seven and one-half hours each week on preparation for classes (Table 18).

From the 117 teachers in the national sample, located in seven cities (Denver, New York City, Phoenix, Boston, Chicago, Los Angeles, and Memphis) data were collected on paper ranking and on questionnaire form A or B (Appendix C). The local teachers completed survey forms A and B, were interviewed extensively, completed paper rankings, and participated in several sessions devoted to data analysis and interpretation. Teachers who said they did not teach writing were not included in the sample of 14 local teachers or 117 national teachers.

The primary focus of the study is, of course, the 14 local teachers, not the national sample. Of the fourteen local teachers, two teach writing to advanced students in English, three teach students in remedial English, four teach general English, two teach a composition elective, two teach bilingual, and one teaches journalism. Three other classes were observed for a limited number of observations in order to verify patterns found in function and advanced classes. One teacher taught an advanced class, one a beginning journalism class, and another taught a public speaking class. These three additional teachers were:

Mapleton High School

Nardi	Grade 12	Advanced English
Hansen	Grade 11	Public Speaking

Hudson High School

O'Neil	Grade 11	Beginning Journalism

These three classes were not included in the data in this report because after two weeks of observation these classes were found not to differ from classes already in the sample. Beginning Journalism and Public Speaking were conducted like regular classes, not like Functional classes, and Nardi's 12th grade did not differ from the other 12th grade Advanced English class in the sample.

The fourteen classes are distributed across four grade levels, 9-12: two in ninth grade, two in tenth grade, one in eleventh, five in twelfth, three in combination eleven-twelve, and one in a combination ten-eleven-twelve. In most high schools in the district, eleventh grade is an elective year, and many of the eleventh grade electives are grade combinations. Even though the terms Advanced, General, and Remedial can mean quite different things from school to school, the terms are used in this report because they not only are the names assigned by a particular school but also represent actual differences in the students' achievement level in the various classes selected for this study.

B. STUDENT SAMPLES

From the fourteen classes, six to ten students per class were selected for study, using the following criteria: (1) an equal number of males and females, (2) an equal number below and above minimum competency, and, (3) an equal number receiving A's, B's, and C's. For various reasons, not all the criteria were met. Because of transfers and absenteeism, 117 students were ultimately interviewed for the student questionnaire, and 121 were interviewed on questions about the two assignments. 117 students were constant throughout the data.

The students who were lost from the planned sample tended to be the students who were below minimum competency in writing, the level required by the school district for graduation from high school. Because all students in grades nine through twelve were tested by the school district at least once, writing scores were available. Thirty-eight percent of the 117 case study students were below minimum competency in writing (Table 13). However, only 29 students reported

receiving grades below B (Table 14).

The ethnic distribution of the case study students matched very closely the ethnic distribution in the schools which the students attended (Table 12). Sixty-five percent of the case study students were Black. Most of the case study students attended general English classes in which writing was taught (Table 10), more were female (19 percent more females than males, Table 7), most were between the ages of 16 and 18 (Table 6), and most were in the twelfth grade (Table 9). The emphasis on twelfth grade classes and students may have resulted from the fact that twelfth grade classes and/or teachers have a greater tendency to include writing in the curriculum.

C. SAMPLE OF OTHER EDUCATORS

The study of policy issues influencing writing instruction was based on interviews of six local teachers and twenty-nine other educators assigned to nine different roles and four different administrative levels (state, county, school district, and school site). The thirty-five other educators were named by various local teachers as sources of policies which influenced the teaching of writing.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

In this study, five data collection procedures were used: (1) note-taking during observations of the entire class period, (2) interviews of local teachers, students, and educators outside the classroom, (3) questionnaires completed by students and local and national teachers, (4) collection of assignments and policy documents, and (5) collection of writing samples from the case study students in the classroom and from the student population taking the school district's minimum competency examination in writing.

A. OBSERVATIONS

The observers for the classroom observations were trained during the development and field testing of the observation instrument. First, the observers watched video tapes of classes and took notes on what they observed. Then they coded their notes for the occurrence of certain behaviors or events. This coding of notes led to an an observation checklist which

included the behaviors of structuring, interacting, administering, disciplining, pacing, and locating behaviors. To each of these major categories, research assistants added additional categories identified in the process of viewing videotapes of classroom segments and discussing behaviors of importance. During every stage of training and instrument development, the research assistants discussed their written observations and coding of the matrix so that they developed consistent terminology for recording the classroom events in their notes. As part of the training procedure, copies of each research assistant's notes were shared with the other observers. The most effective note taking techniques were thus identified and practiced by the rest of the group in subsequent viewing sessions. After approximately three weeks of practicing with videotapes and successively adding agreed upon note-taking procedures and coding categories, the basic form of the observation was established. Then observers spent another three weeks practicing the established routine by watching video tapes of classrooms and checking consistency of note taking and coding procedures.

The list of coding categories was called the coding matrix, and the completion of this matrix became the first step in data preparation, which is described in the next section. The matrix had the effect of creating a common vocabulary for what was being observed in classes and for foregrounding behavior and events which seemed particularly important to the study. The matrix had five main areas: (1) lesson structuring by the teacher, (2) administrative work by student or teacher, (3) disciplinary action by the teacher, (4) lesson responses by the teacher, and (5) lesson responses by the students. The interaction between notes and matrix tended, therefore, to standardize the terms used in the notes and to give special saliency to particular behaviors and events in the class.

After the six weeks of establishing and practicing the observation procedures of note taking, the observers field tested the procedures in inner city high school classrooms not included in the study. The field test involved two separate series of classroom visits in two different cities. Research assistants worked alone and then in pairs so that their data collection procedures could be compared and made as consistent as

possible. In addition, once the observations were underway for the main study a reliability check of the observation procedures was made. This reliability check is reported in the section on data preparation.

The sources of data collection on classroom behaviors were the fourteen case study classrooms with 299 observations (See Table 17).

The observation procedure consisted of several steps. The observer arrived prior to the beginning of the class and quickly sketched a map of the classroom (see Appendix B), including student identifications (sex and ethnicity). As soon as class started, the observer began taking notes, following the form on the next page, and audio taping the class when possible. The map coded the students by row and location in row. Student 2/3, for example, was located in the second row from the left and the third seat from the front. All of the classes except Journalism used this basic row format. The Journalism class was much smaller and had chairs around central tables.

Notes were submitted with a cover sheet showing the name of the teacher and the date. The notes themselves had a wide left margin for showing class time at the beginning when the bell rang and then at three to five minute intervals. In addition, codes for the matrix and the segments were shown in the left margin. In the example on the next page, the matrix codes are such items as 7-B and 3-i, and the segments are such items as "segment 1." In their notes, the observers used such common symbols as T for teacher and S for student.

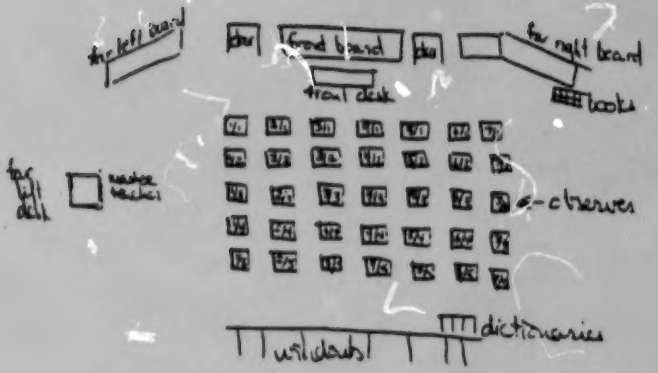
After the class observation was completed, the observer reviewed the handwritten class notes as soon as possible, "cleaning them up" by adding details to clarify any incomplete entries, listening to the audio-tapes when necessary. After the handwritten notes were completed, the observer began the first level of data analysis by completing the matrix, class summaries, and writing episodes sheets (see Appendix B).

B. QUESTIONNAIRES

Questionnaires, Form A and B, were sent to the 117 teachers in the national sample and to the 14 teachers in the local sample (See

12/11/80

OF ENGLISH 8



Field Notes 12/11/80

11:58 Before class- most of the students are seated there is some distur-
segment 1 then bance at the door- 2 students from the hall enter the class call to friends
all 12:00 PA T "Ok I'll pass your vocabulary tests back at the end
things of this period." The class is very noisy.
2-H, PC T "I want everyone in their seats and quiet."
6-D (firm) The noise continues
2-B S 7/4 asks if T wants the homework
T says yes and asks the class to pass it in.
2-H The class noise continues Students complain to S 7/4
for suggesting the homework be collected.
2-B T answers some student questions, tells one S "You
2-H had all week to work on it so you should have it in
so apparently had not completed the assignment.
2-H T asks the class to stop the noise

2-C 12:03 T "O.K someone said they were having some problems
3-I with adverbs." He asks students to get a specific
question ready to ask him, that unless they have something
specific, he cannot help.
7-B 7/2 raises her hand, says she has had trouble (in Vocabulary)
with 5 on T asks her to read the sentence
2-H T interrupts his writing on the board and tells
1-D the class he can't hear her answer. T writes entire
6A, 3-E sentence Class is quiet.
written
Sentence "5. Jim's father was afraid of Bruce that he
could not get his guest for the return.

16-A

Appendix C). A student questionnaire was administered in an interview to the 117 case students and five other students from Nardi's class (See Appendix C). Both questionnaires were field tested prior to use.

C. INTERVIEWS

The 117 case students were interviewed three times: (1)responding to the general background questions on the student questionnaire and ranking student papers from the district proficiency examination, (2)responding to specific questions about a hypothetical writing assignment (the same assignment for all students), and (3) responding to specific questions about an actual writing assignment given in the individual student's class (no more than 10 students responding to the same assignment) and questions about discipline.

The fourteen case study teachers were interviewed extensively in two all day meetings held on the campus of the University of California, in five interviews held at the school site (three on teacher beliefs and planning strategies and two on general approaches to teaching writing), and in frequent short conferences between the participating teachers and the project staff.

In addition, twenty-nine policy makers at various levels of school governance were interviewed on policies influencing the teaching of writing in inner city secondary schools. Six teachers were also interviewed in a special policy session.

D. WRITING SAMPLES

Two kinds of writing samples were collected. First, the teachers were asked to keep portfolios of all writing assigned in class for two to three months. These writing samples were used to estimate whether the writing proficiency score of the case study students matched rather closely the general quality of the writing the students produced in class. The answer, based on reading the papers in the portfolio, was YES. These writing samples were also used to determine whether the assignments observed were similar to the assignments which occurred when the class was not observed. The answer again was YES. The distribution of portfolio papers is discussed in

Chapter IV. These writing samples also were used in a small study of the kinds of problems that teachers typically found in student papers. This study is discussed in Chapter III.

A second group of writing samples (154) were randomly selected from the papers written for the district's proficiency examination. These papers had been scored once on a one-to-six scale (bottom to top) following the district's holistic scoring procedures.

DATA PREPARATION

Data preparation required a first level and a second level data analysis for the observations, the interviews, the questionnaires, and the writing samples. A third level was added when appropriate. First level analysis means, for example, that all discipline episodes were marked on the matrix and coded in the margin of the notes. Thus, first level analysis produces a frequency count for a given type of event or behavior. Second level analysis attempts to group the total frequencies into different categories (for example, different types of responses from teachers in discipline episodes). Third level analysis uses both aggregated data from the first or second level of analysis and case study data from the notes. In third level analysis, individual examples of categories are described.

A. OBSERVATIONS

The first level data analysis required that after completing field notes, the observer would complete a matrix, a class summary sheet showing the segments of the period, and a writing episode sheet summarizing the qualities of any writing assignment given during the class period. The matrix required the observer to divide the class into segments and to code activities of structuring (explaining assignments, waiting for questions to structure assignments), administering (taking roll, handling class interruptions), disciplining students, grouping or not grouping students, locating at various places in the room (at the board, circulating, at the desk), monologing without exchanges with students or responding to student on-task comments or questions, and giving students roles to play in class. These matrix codes were marked on the matrix and in the left margin of the field notes.

The summary of the class period required the observer to divide the class into segments if that were appropriate. For most class periods, teachers segmented activities. A segment was defined as a shift in class activities--from small group to whole class, from individual work to whole class. This shift in activity structures was sometimes accompanied by a shift in content--moving from a short story to a punctuation drill, for instance. Sometimes, there was no change in content. For instance, first the student read the story individually and then discussed the story with the whole class. (See Appendix B for a sample of a class summary).

The class summaries had to show not only the summarized activities of the segment but also the beginning time of each segment, the opening statement or question used by the teacher to begin the segment, the statement or question used by the teacher to close the segment, if any, and the typical interaction during the segment (Student-and-Student Exchange, Teacher-to-Student, Teacher-and-Student exchange) After completing the class summary sheet, showing the time of the various segments and summarizing the activity within each segment, the observer marked the beginning point of each segment in the left margin of the field notes.

Finally, if writing occurred in the class, the observer was asked to complete a writing episode sheet. The writing episode sheet asked for descriptions of the writing that was done, how long the students wrote, and some description of how the teacher assigned the lesson. Again the information in the writing episode sheet could always be double checked against the field notes.

In summary, the field notes were a data collection procedure, and the matrix, class summaries, and writing episode sheets were a first level data analysis, providing frequency counts on various types of events and behavior. Any coded behavior in these three instruments could always be traced to the actual events described in the field notes. The relationship of the data reduced to codes and actual events recorded in the field notes could be easily investigated by scanning the codes in the left margin and collecting samples of these codes from the field notes. This relationship between field notes and the matrix became the basis for a check on the

reliability of the observations.

Reliability Check of Note taking

During the second month of observations in the case study classrooms a check of note taking procedures was made. The Project Research Coordinator (PC) visited each of the case study classrooms with the research assistant (RA) who usually observed there. Both the RA and PC took notes during the period, following the usual procedures.

Three five-minute segments were then chosen at random from these paired observations for detailed comparison of content and matrix categorization. Class periods were typically 50 minutes long so the compared portions represented approximately one-third of each total observation. Altogether eight different observers plus the Research Coordinator were involved in this reliability check.

The five minute excerpts, chosen at random from one day of classroom observations of eight teachers, were in turn divided into units. The average five-minute excerpt contained approximately 14 units: 1.5 structuring, 1.5 administering, 7 interacting, .5 disciplining, .5 teacher locating, .5 student locating, .5 pacing. These units were defined according to the matrix code categories and the subcategories within them. The units could vary in length as long as they belonged to no more than one matrix sub-category and dealt with one topic (structuring, interacting, administering, disciplining, location, or pacing). In the category of interaction, each question and answer was counted as one interaction. In a few instances "half segments" were counted. These were of two types:

1. Half an interaction: that is, the RA may have recorded an interaction between teacher and student, noting the teacher's question and the student's response. The RA would then be given credit for one full segment. However, the Project Coordinator (PC) may have noted only the teacher's question, but not the student's response, and so would be given only half credit. The following example illustrates this type of partial agreement comparing excerpts from the RA's and PC's notes of the same interaction.

Example:

RA: T: OK. what is word in dark print? S's call out "protest"

PC: T: OK, word in dark print.

2. Additional content, not affecting category One observer noted additional dialogue or action which did not affect the categorization of the unit.

Example:

During an administrative sequence (asking for volunteers), the PC notes that the teacher says "you need parental consent." The RA fails to note this.

Observations were then compared, unit by unit, and these unit pairings were identified as "comparable" or "different." In order to qualify as "comparable" the RA's segments and the PC's segment had to agree in type as well as content. That is, both should be codable within the same broad matrix category type, such as "Structuring," as well as classifiable within the same subcategory, such as "teacher attempts to get attention." Some examples of units coded as comparable follow.

Examples of "Sames"

Structuring

PC: T: "OK, stop for just a minute. What I want you to try--take moment in group-30 sec-show map how see 10 yr old."

RA: T: "Stop for just a minute. Want you to try-take a moment in your group--30 sec each person-show how you see 10 yr old.

Administering

PC: T calls off names of Ss who haven't turned in books.

RA: T reads names of Ss who have not turned in books.

Disciplining

PC: T: "May I have attention. If you don't want to be here-excuse you-There's door you can leave-we don't need you here.

RA: T: "May we have yr attn-may be excused in back we don't need you here."

Interacting

PC: T: "Who's being observed, man or woman?
F84: "man"

RA: T: "A man or woman? Who is observer?"
F42: "man"

Teacher Location

PC: T back at cupboard

RA: T at cupboard

PC: T closes door

RA: T goes to close door, returns to seat

Student Location

PC: Male student now carries own chair from table and moves over by F student, talks a minute, then moves behind desk.

RA: Male moves chair over next to BF, converses, then moves over next to Alfonso (at desk)

PC: F student goes front

RA: Student #15 goes to podium

Pacing

PC: Most Ss quiet, still writing

RA: Some Ss continue talking, others still mapping

Those segments which could not qualify for "comparable" status were of two types. By far the most

common were instances of one observer noting something which the other missed. Here it may be noted that the RA's and the Project Coordinator had very nearly the same number of segments--288.3 for the RA's and 270.5 for the PC. Given the sometimes "decentralized" activities of a classroom and the physical constraints upon an observer of noting one thing at a time, it is to be expected that a certain amount of activity would escape any single observer. Indeed, in the highly focused activities of teacher Structuring and Administering, and the "Lecturing" subcategory of Interaction, the level of RA and PC agreement was highest.

The "uncorroborated" observations were added to the number of units identified as "comparable," thereby obtaining a total number of significant segments. This total was then used as a base for determining the percentage of observation agreement between research assistants (RA) and Project Coordinator (PC). For example, there were 34 comparable Structuring units which were identified by both the RA's and the PC. To these 34 were added two and a half observations made by the RA and one by the PC, for a total of 37.5 Structuring units. The RA, therefore, obtained 36.5 of 37.5 possible unit points or 97.3 percent, and the Project Coordinator was credited with 35 of 37.5, or 93.3 percent.

It should be noted that the percentages in Table 15 do not represent the number of agreements. Among total units in the Structuring category as an example, the RA and the PC agreed upon 34 of the 37.5 observed units, or 90.7 percent (see Table 16).

Dealing with Differences

In order to identify comparable units, the following three questions were asked. If the answers to all three questions were affirmative, then the units were considered in agreement:

1. Could the units be identified as belonging to the same major matrix category?

2. Could they be identified as the same subcategory?

3. Is the content identifiably similar?

The following examples illustrate cases where one or more of the questions was not answered in the affirmative, and the observers received only partial or no credit.

1. Different synopses of the same activity. These would have been coded in the same major matrix category and same subcategory, not in conflict with each other. (There were two instances of this type.) For example, the teacher gave a lengthy structuring statement, and the RA and PC extracted different synopses. In this case the RA and PC were each given half credit.

2. Presence/Absence. These would have been coded in different categories or different subcategories but did not contradict each other (two examples).

PC: Student enters (coded student locating)

RA: T asks S why late (coded administrative)

In this case the PC was given credit for one unit of student location and the RA credit for one unit of administration.

PC: T --- ?

RA: "Who's next?"

Both recordings would have assigned this unit to the major category of interacting, but only the RA gave enough information to identify the subcategory (teacher nominating). The PC was given .5 credit, and the RA full.

3. Contradictions. There were instances in which the RA or PC contradicted each other as to subcategory or content. There were four examples. All four were counted into the base number, but neither RA nor PC were given credit.

Example:

PC: S - "don't understand"

RA: S - "same, and elaborates"

PC: T - "I'll ask you some pointers"

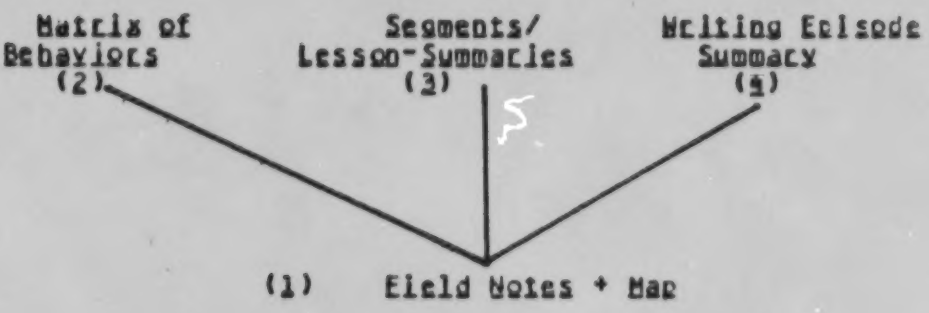
RA: S - "I'll give you some pointers."

PC: Teacher questions.

RA: Teacher nominates, I reads.

Overall, the level of agreement in the coded units was quite high. This reliability check indicates that the time spent during the initial four months of the project, developing procedures and training observers, resulted in reliable data collection procedures.

In summary, first level data analysis of observations has three documents based on the field notes:



E. INTERVIEWS, QUESTIONNAIRES, AND WRITING SAMPLES

The writing samples from the proficiency examination were scored as part of the district's holistic scoring procedures. These papers were then coded for different kinds of problems identified by case study teachers.

The student interviews were taped and transcripts typed or summaries written, and then coded for different purposes and problems. The questionnaires completed by students were coded for (1) writing done outside of school, (2) writing which is received outside of school, (3) writing as a part of the student's future plans, (4) acquaintance with someone who writes regularly, and (5) the frequency of various writing assignments in classes.

The questionnaire completed by local and national teachers was coded for (1) distribution of hours spent on professional activities per week, (2) amount and type of writing given in a two-week period, (3) the structuring of writing assignments, and (4) the teacher's response to writing. The outline that follows shows how the observations, interviews, questionnaires, student papers, and policy documents moved from first level analysis (frequency) to second level analysis (groupings) and third level analysis (case study examples of groups and settings).

Instruments for Data Collection and Analysis

Observations: Data Collection: Field Notes and Map
Data Analysis: Matrix: Appendix B

I. Discipline Episode: First Level Data Analysis (Appendix B)

A. Teachers

1. Response to Discipline: Second Level Analysis (Table 51)

a. Type

i. Declarative

ii. Imperative

iii. "Ladies and Gentlemen"

iv. Non-Verbal (Gesture)

v. Action

b. Frequency

2. Style of Teachers: Third Level Analysis (Chapter V)

a. Type

i. Direct Repeaters

ii. Indirect Repeaters

iii. Establishers

iv. Staplers

b. Students

1. Disciplined Behavior: Second Level Data Analysis (Table 51)

a. Past and Future Action

b. Attendance

c. Off-task (i.e. gum) Behavior

d. Lesson Work

e. Interrupting Behavior

II. Interruptions: First Level Analysis on Matrix (Appendix B)

A. Types of Interruptions: Second Level Analysis (Table 52)

1. Bulletins

2. New Student Enters

3. Message Delivered by Student (or Equipment)

4. Message Delivered by Staff (or Equipment)

5. Public Address System

6. Class Telephone

7. Alarms (Fire)

8. Other (noise outside of room)

B. Frequency: Second Level Analysis (Table 52)

III. Attendance: First Level Analysis of Maps, Notes (Tables 53, 54, 55)

A. Absenteeism: Enrollment in Roll Book; Attendance on Maps/Notes (Tables 53, 54, 55)

B. Lateness: Observed entering after bell

IV. Segment: First Level Analysis on Matrix (Appendix B)

A. Beginning of Segment; Ending of Segment

B. Type Coded:

1. SA: change in student activity (discussing to writing)

2. SAG: change in group size (whole class discussion to group discussion)

3. SIC: change in instructional content (grammar books to short story)

4. Not counted as separate segment: "Dead Time" at beginning of class;

Administrative Time (taking roll); Major interruptions (fire drill)

Observations: Data Collection: Field Notes and Map Data Analysis: Segment Summaries: Appendix E

I. Segment Frequency: First Level of Analysis of Location (Table 45)

A. Marking Time: Beginning and Ending

B. Marking Teacher Opening and Closing

II. Segment Routines: Third Level Analysis of Three Teachers (Chapter IV)

A. Non-Verbal (Table 46)

1. Position Change

2. Writing on Board

3. Distribution of Materials

4. Manipulation of Equipment

B. Verbal

1. Use (Chapter IV)

a. Openers

b. Closers

c. Future Projection

d. Monitoring Time

2. Type (Tables 57 and 58)

a. Declarative

b. Imperative

c. Informatives

d. Jokes

e. Expressives

f. Questions

g. Formulas

h. Performatives

Observations: Data Collection: Field Notes and Mat
Data Analysis: Writing Episode Sheets
(Appendix B)

1. Assignments: First Level Analysis (Tables 25, 26, and 27)

A. Type: Second Level Analysis (Tables 26, 27, 25)

1. Reading

2. Skills

3. Ideas

4. Rhetoric

5. Multiple

B. Time: First Level Analysis (Tables 22, 25) (Tables 22, 25)

Interviews: Data Collection: Notes, Tapes, Transcripts
Data Analysis: Coding of Interviews

1. Interviews of Teachers

A. Interviews of Teachers on Teaching Writing (Appendix E)

1. Skills and Knowledge about Writing: First Level Analysis

2. Assignment Guidelines: First Level Analysis

B. Interviews on Planning (Appendix E)

1. Planning Process in Log: First Level Analysis (Tables 37 and 55)

NOTE: Teachers kept two week logs which became topic of interview

2. Typical Planning Process: Second Level

Analysis (Tables 33, 34, 35, and 36)

a. Incremental Planners: Third Level Analysis (Table 33, Chapter IV)

b. Comprehensive Planners: Third Level Analysis (Table 33, Chapter IV)

C. Interviews on Policies (Appendix E)

1. Impact of Policies on Instruction

a. Five Policies are Major: First Level Analysis (Chapter VI)

b. Levels of Governance in Policies: First Level of Analysis (Figure E)

2. Convergence of Policies and Instruction

a. Loosely Coupled: Third Level Analysis (Chapter VI)

b. Tightly Coupled: Third Level Analysis (Chapter VI)

D. Follow-up Interviews on Topics Above

These follow-up interviews were an effort to move from first level analysis of the first interviews in which the frequency of various responses was coded to a second or third level analysis, grouping the responses in some way.

1. Statement of Course Goals: teachers were asked to state in writing their goals for composition instruction in the course observed. (The form which was used appears in Appendix G). They all completed this task in no more than ten minutes, while at the Saturday meeting.

2. Rating of composition skills and knowledge: teachers were next given a list of 24 composition skills and areas of knowledge and asked to rate the emphasis they gave them in the class observed, using a 4-point scale, where 1 = almost no emphasis and 4 = a great deal of emphasis. These skills and types of knowledge had previously been identified by individual teachers during their interviews in the first year of

the research study, as skills and knowledge they especially emphasized or "harped on" in their courses (Table 57).

3. Rating of State curriculum goals: teachers were next given a list of goals which appeared in the State Curriculum Framework for all English teachers and asked to rate the degree of emphasis they gave these goals in the class observed (Table 57).

4. Relationship of state goals to specific skills: teachers were next asked to identify any strong relationships between state goals which they highly emphasized (i.e. had given a "4" rating to) and specific composition skills and knowledge. To indicate this, they were asked to write the letter of the state goal next to the specific skill or type of knowledge (Appendix C, Table 57).

5. Relationship of course goals to specific skills: teachers were next asked to identify any strong relationships between their course goals and the specific goals and knowledge. To indicate this they placed the number of each of their course goals next to the skill or type of knowledge it was related to (Table 57).

6. Sequences of skills and knowledge: teachers next were given 24 cards on which the specific composition skills or type of knowledge had been written. They were asked to sort the cards, ordering the items from the most "basic" or "easiest to learn" to the "most sophisticated" or "most difficult to learn." In addition they were told that they might see several items as being of comparable difficulty; they could indicate this belief by writing the numbers of the items and circling them. Alternately, they might identify one item which included or subsumed several other types of skills or knowledge; they could also indicate that kind of relationship by using brackets.

7. Relationship of course goals and specific skills to specific assignments:

Teachers were also given individual follow-up interviews, taking place within two weeks of the group data collection session. During the interviews teachers were asked to identify one or two specific assignments or procedures they used to accomplish each of their course goals and each of the specific skills and knowledge which they highly emphasized (i.e. which they had given a "4" rating). (Table 57).

E. Teachers Rank Six Papers and Comment

1. Paper Rankings: First Level of Analysis (Table 32)

2. Comments on Paper: Third Level of Analysis (Chapter IV)

F. Interviews on Students (Appendix E)

1. Students Compared: First Level Analysis (Table)

a. Other classes

b. Other years

2. Student Problems: First Level Analysis (Table)

a. Writing Skills

b. Class Behavior

c. Other Language Skills

II. Interviews of Students

A. Hypothetical Assignments: Purpose, Problem, Preferences: What are the Assignment Problems for You?: First and Second Level Analysis, Frequency and Groups (Table 38)

1. "Getting Started": Invention

2. Mechanics

3. Organization

4. Personal

5. None

B. Real Assignments: Purposes, Problems, Preferences: What are the Assignment Problems for You? First and Second Level Analysis (Table 39)

1. Invention

2. Mechanics

3. Organization

4. Personal

5. None

C. Student Essays

1. How would you rank these six essays?: First Level Analysis (Table 41) Ranking one to six

2. What problems do you find in these papers? Third Level Analysis (Chapter IV) Content; mechanics

III. Interviews

A. Questions to 24 Informants: First Level Analysis: Coding Policy References in Responses to the Following Questions

1. Writing Goals: e.g. "Are there any school goals or objectives for writing?" "What things do you consider when you set up goals for students in writing?"

2. Writing Problems: e.g. "What do you see as the biggest problem that students in the district have with writing?" "What is the cause of the problem?"

3. Approaches to Teaching Writing: e.g. "What if you wanted to try something new or innovative in writing for a semester; what would you have to do?"

4. Evaluation: e.g. "Is there such a thing as school-wide testing for writing proficiency?"

5. Personnel: e.g. "Do you play a role in selecting English teachers?"

6. Students: e.g. "How are students

selected and assigned to English classes? That is, how is it determined which students get into which classes?"

B. Five Major Policies: Second Level Analysis (Grouping Responses) (Chapter VI)

C. Follow-up to 11 Informants

1. Examples of Five Policy Areas: Third Level Analysis (Case Study Comments) (Chapter VI)

B. Fit of Policy and Practice

1. Loosely Coupled: Third Level Data Analysis (Chapter VI)

2. Tightly Coupled: Third Level Data Analysis (Chapter VI)

Data Collection: Local and National Teacher Questionnaires
Data Analysis: Coded Questionnaires (Appendix C)

I. Background

A. National: First Level Data Analysis (Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

B. Local: First Level Data Analysis (Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

II. Writing: First Level Data Analysis

A. National/Local (Tables 28, 29, 30)

B. Practice: National/Local (Tables 31, 32)

C. Response: National/Local (Tables 42, 43)

III. Ranking of Student Papers: First Level Data Analysis (Table 19)

Data Collection: Student Writing Papers
Data Analysis: Coded Student Papers

I. Proficiency Sample

A. Error Study: First Level Data Analysis (Tables 20 and 21)

II. Portfolio Samples: First Level Data Analysis

(Chapter IV)

III. Bilingual Samples: First Level Data Analysis (Appendix A)

Data Collection: Policy Documents Collected
Data Analysis: Grouping of Policy Documents

I. Teachers

A. Assignments: Third Level Data Analysis of Assignments (Chapter IV)

B. Curriculum Guides: First Level Data Analysis of Policy Occurrence (One Counted: Mapleton High School)

II. Policy Educators

A. Policy Documents: Second Level Analysis of Grouping of Policy Documents (Chapter VI)

SUMMARY

Figure 2 shows the different units of analysis described in the chapters that follow: the Writing Episode (Chapter III), the Lesson (Chapter IV), the Period (Chapter V), the Policies (Chapter VI), and the Profession (Chapter VII). Chapter VIII includes a summary of findings and recommendations.

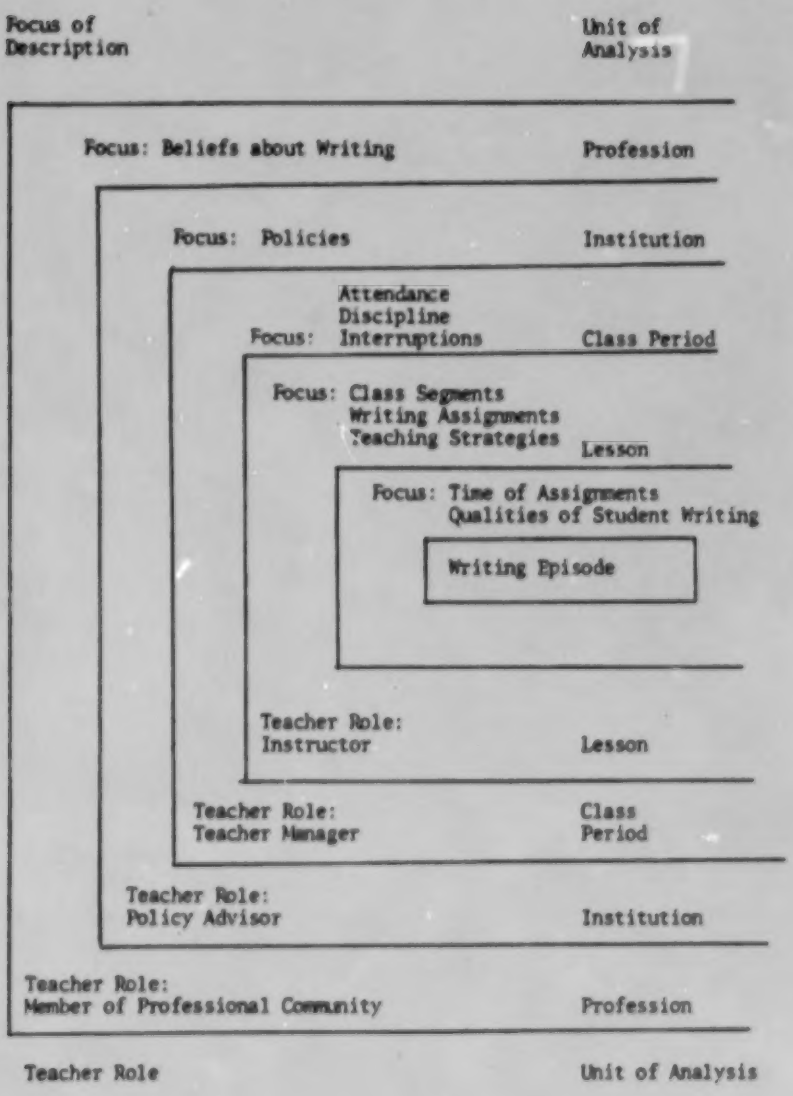

Focus of Description
Unit of Analysis
Focus: Beliefs about Writing
Profession
Focus: Policies
Institution
Attendance
Discipline
Focus: Interruptions
Class Period
Focus: Class Segments
Writing Assignments
Teaching Strategies
Lesson
Focus: Time of Assignments
Qualities of Student Writing
Writing Episode
Teacher Role:
Instructor
Lesson
Teacher Role:
Teacher Manager
Class Period
Teacher Role:
Policy Advisor
Institution
Teacher Role:
Member of Professional Community
Profession
Teacher Role
Unit of Analysis

Figure 2

Table 1

Location of Teachers*

NATIONAL

Location	n	%
Mountain City	26	22.2
Oceanside	23	19.7
Metropolis	21	17.9
Centerville	17	14.5
Desert City	16	13.7
South City	11	9.4
Northeast	3	2.6
TOTAL	117	

LOCAL

School	n	%
Riverview Jr. High	2	14.3
Mapleton Tech	1	7.1
Mosswood High	3	21.4
Hudson High	4	28.6
Mapleton High	4	28.6

* All 114 teachers from the Local Teacher Sample are from Mapleton, California

Table 2

Age Category of Teachers

	NATIONAL		LOCAL	
Age Category	n	%	n	%
25 years or younger	1	0.9	0	-
26 - 35 years	44	37.6	4	28.6
36 - 45 years	37	31.6	5	35.7
56 years or over	12	10.3	1	7.1
TOTAL	117		14	

Table 3

Total Years of Teaching Experience

	NATIONAL		LOCAL	
	n	%	n	%
1 - 5 years	9	7.7	2	14.3
6 - 10 years	31	26.5	2	14.3
11 - 15 years	26	22.2	5	35.7
16 - 20 years	31	26.5	3	211.4
Over 20 years	20	17.1	2	14.3
TOTAL	117		14	

Table 4

Years Teaching in Inner City Schools

	NATIONAL		LOCAL	
	n	%	n	%
None	4	3.6	0	0.0
1 - 5 years	19	17.0	1	7.7
6 - 10 years	29	25.9	2	15.4
11 - 15 years	27	24.1	8	61.5
16 - 20 years	21	18.8	1	7.7
Over 20 years	12	10.7	1	7.7
No data	5	-	-	-
TOTAL	117		14	

Table 5

Years Teaching in Other Schools (Greater Urban, Suburban or Rural)

	NATIONAL		LOCAL	
	n	%	n	%
None	66	58.9	6	46.2
1 - 5 years	27	24.1	6	46.2
6 - 10 years	10	8.9	0	0.0
11 - 15 years	4	3.6	1	7.7
16 - 20 years	4	3.6	0	0.0
Over 20 years	1	.9	0	0.0
No data	5	-	1	-
TOTAL	117	14		

Table 6

Case Study Students by Class

Teacher	Grade	Class Type	School	N-1
Newman	10	Advanced	Mosswood	12
Merrill	11-12	Composition	Mapleton	9
Sanders	11	General	Hudson	9
Orozco	10-12	Bilingual	Hudson	8
Grover	12	Advanced	Mapleton Tech	8
Hayward	12	Remedial	Mapleton	8
Barnes	12	Remedial	Mapleton	8
Ellis	10	Remedial	Mosswood	7
Gordon	9	General	Riverview	7
Woodward	12	General	Mosswood	7
Hopkins	9	General	Riverview	12
Clay	11-12	Composition	Mapleton	7
O'Neil	12	Journalism II	Hudson	10
Siguieros	11-12	Bilingual	Hudson	5
TOTAL				117

Table 7

Sex of Case Study Students

Sex Distribution		
Sex	N	%
Male	49	41.9
Female	68	58.1
Total	117	100.0

Table 8

Age of Case Study Students

Age Distribution		
Age	N	%
13	1	.9
14	9	7.8
15	17	14.7
16	23	19.8
17	36	31.0
18	26	22.4
19	4	3.4
Total	117	100.0

Table 9

Grade of Case Study Students

Grade Level Distribution		
Grade Level	N	%
9th grade	14	12.0
10th grade	22	18.8
11th grade	27	23.0
12th grade	54	46.2
Total	117	100.0

Table 10

Classes of Case Study Students

Class Type Distribution		
Class Type	f	%
General	30	25.6
Advanced	25	21.4
Remedial	23	19.7
Composition	16	13.7
Bilingual	13	11.1
Journalism (Functional)	10	8.5
Total	117	100.0

Table 11

Schools of Case Study Students

School Distribution*		
School	N	%
Mapleton High	37	31.6
Hudson High	32	27.4
Mosswood High	26	22.2
Riverview Jr. High	14	12.0
Mapleton Tech	8	6.8
Total	117	100.0

Table 12

Ethnic Background of Case Study Students

Ethnic Group	Number	Percent
Black	76	65
Hispanic	22	18.8
Asian	14	12.0
Fillipino	2	1.7
Iranian	2	1.7
White/Other	1	.9
TOTAL	117	100.1

Table 13

Scores of Case Study Students

Proficiency Score Category Distribution		
Score Category	N	%
Low (0-5)	9	7.8
Just below passing (6)	35	30.2
Passing (7)	33	28.4
High (8-12)	39	33.6
Missing Students	1	
Total	117	100.0

Table 14

Grades of Case Study Students

Distribution of Previous Year's Final English Grades		
Grade	N	%
A	29	25.2
B	57	49.6
C	26	22.6
D	3	2.6
F	0	-
Missing S's	2	
Total	117	100.0

Table 15

How Often did PC and RA Observe Same Units?
(Agreement)

Category	Total Units	Same Units Observed	Percent
Structuring	37.5	34	90.7
Administering	37	31	83.8(a)
Disciplinary	13.5	3.5	25.9(b)
Interacting	164.7	116.8	71.0
FOCUSED SUBTOTAL	252.7	185.3	73.4(c)
T Location	26	9	34.6
S Location	15	7	46.7
S Pacing	46.3	21	45.3
PERIPHERAL SUBTOTAL	87.3	36	41.2
GRAND TOTAL	340	221.3	64.1

(a) PC missed 2 units in Spanish. Agreement on administering units in English was 88.6 percent.

(b) PC Missed 6 units in Spanish. Agreement on disciplinary units in English was 46.7 percent.

(c) If PC is not penalized for not understAnding Spanish, agreement on focused units increases to 75.7 percent.

Table 16

Of Total Units Observed, How many Were Observed by RA and PC?

Category	Total Units	RA Observed	%	PC Observed	%
Structuring	37.5	36.5	97.3	35	93.3
Administering	37	32.5	87.8	32	87.2(a)
Disciplining	13.5	12.0	88.9	5	37.0(b)
Interacting	164.7	138.8	84.3	138.7	84.2
FOCUSED SUBTOTAL	252.7	219.8	87.0	211.7	83.8
T Location	26	18	69.2	17	65.4
S Location	15	11	73.3	18	86.7
S Pacing	46.3	39.5	85.3	27.8	60.1
PERIPHERAL SUBTOTAL	87.3	68.5	78.4	57.8	66.2
GRAND TOTAL	340	288.3	84.8	269.5	79.3

(a) PC missed two units in Spanish. PC observed 94.3 percent of administrative units in English.

(b) PC missed six units in Spanish. PC observed 66.7 percent of disciplinary units in English.

Table 17

Total Observations in Classes of 14 Case Study Teachers

Average Segments	Grade	Teacher	No.Obs./ Class	Classes with Writing(No.)	Writing Episodes
3.4	9	Gordon	22	21	29
2.6	9	Hopkins	22	15	25
2.3	10	Newman	25	16	20
2.3	10	Ellis	23	23	50
1.4	11	Sanders	27	7	7
2.6	12	Woodward	16	13	13
NA(a)	12	Barnes	18	--	--
1.3	12	Haywrd	16	14	16
1.9	12	Grover	12	7	9
NA(a)	Function	O'Neil	19	--	--
1.4	11-12	Merrill	29	14	18
1.4	11-12	Clay	26	17	22
2.9	Bilingual	Siguieros	24	19	18
2.8	Bilingual	Orozco	20	18	38
--	Advanced	Nardi	3	(b)	(b)
--	Function	Harper	8	(b)	(b)
2.1	TOTAL		310	194	276

(a) Segmenting statistics for class activities could not be calculated because an individualized instruction format was used.

(b) Dropped from sample.

Table 18

Hours Per Week
Teacher Spends on Professional Activities

	National				Local			
Activity	Mean(a)	SD	Median(b)	n(c)	Mean(a)	SD	Median(b)	n(c)
Teaching	21.7	5.4	20.5	116	22.9	7.0	23.8	14
Extra assigned school duties	5.3	5.1	4.6	116	4.1	4.2	3.2	14
Informal tutoring and counseling	2.7	2.5	2.2	114	2.2	1.6	2.3	14
Preparation for teaching classes	7.0	3.9	5.5	115	7.6	5.8	5.3	14
Reading, correcting, grading, and commenting on student writing	9.0	6.0	7.4	113	7.6	2.2	8.0	14
Other	6.0	6.0	3.3	67	4.6	5.4	2.5	10

(a) mean number of hours spent on activity per week
(b) median number of hours spent on activity per week
(c) number of teachers responding to item

III. THE WRITING EPISODE

The Writing Episode is that time period beginning when the students puts pen or pencil to paper and ending when the students turns the writing in to the teacher. The Writing Episode occurs during the class period and is, therefore, emtedded within the Lesson, including assignment directions and responses, and within the Period, including attendance patterns and interruptions. Lesson and Period are the two chapters which follow. The focus in this chapter is on the time of the Writing Episode and the qualities of the writing samples typical of the students in the school district.

Two of the fourteen classrooms in the study were dropped from the data used in this chapter because the individualized nature of their programs made it difficult to aggregate data for whole classes. One such class was the Journalism class in which each student had a unique assignment, sometimes requiring writing, sometimes not. The other class was Barnes' 12th Grade Remedial English class in which students worked on individual assignments except for a weekly spelling test and an essay about a movie once every several weeks. This made the timing and focus of assignments difficult to observe.

The data on the writing episodes is, therefore, based on 262 observations of twelve classrooms. Of the 262 observations, 184 observations had 276 writing episodes recorded in the notes and in the first level data analysis on the Writing Episode sheets (Appendix B and Table 17).

THE TIME OF WRITING EPISODE

When a Writing Episode occurred in the twelve observed classes, the average length of the Episode was 16 minutes. The proportion of total class time spent on writing was 34%, and the length of the average class period was 50 minutes.

THE WRITING OF STUDENTS ACROSS THE DISTRICT

The school district requires a mechanics test and two writing samples, an essay topic and a letter topic, to be given each year to all ninth graders and to all high school students (grades 10,11,12) who have not previously passed the district's requirements for minimum competency in writing. The students are given a full class period for each of the writing topics, and they are required to pass two of the three tests. Seven is the passing score on the two writing

samples.

The score for the writing is the result of a holistic scoring procedure in which 35-40 teachers spend one week together selecting anchor papers for a six point scale, scoring each paper twice, and reading for a third time all papers with two scores differing by more than one point. After the papers have two scores, the two scores are combined, producing a scale of 2 (Bottom) to 12 (top). Seven was selected as the minimum passing score by a district committee of parents and teachers.

The holistic scores are based on anchor papers selected throughout the one week reading in order to solidify agreement among the teachers on the qualities of each score category from one (low) to six (high). This agreement must be constantly tested and re-tested. Thus, the six sets of anchor papers capture the range of writing which exists in the four to five thousand samples from the proficiency examination, and some part of the scale of anchor papers is representative of what teachers see in their classes.

Agreement on the scale and on the representativeness of the writing samples is a process which continues throughout the school year in staff development sessions and in school and department meetings. Seven of the fourteen case study teachers participated in the one week scoring at the district office. All fourteen were asked to rank the papers in a research project meeting, and almost all of their rankings agreed with the district ranking. The exception was three teachers who reversed the 3 and 4 papers.

The judgments of the local teachers was validated by the judgment of teachers in the national sample. Table 19 shows the agreement in rankings between the local and national teachers. A Mann Whitney U test of pairwise comparisons of the rankings of six anchor papers showed no significant difference between local and national teachers. 106 teachers from the sample of 117 teachers in six cities across the country were asked to rank a set of anchor papers and to estimate how well these papers reflected the work of their students in class. 91% of the national teachers agreed on the scoring of the 1, 90% on the 2, 69% on the 6, 46% on the 5, 42% on the 3, and 32% on the 4. 70% or more of the national teachers clumped the 5 and 6 at the top and the 3 and 4 in the middle. 26% of the national teachers wanted to place the 5 in the top category, and 23% of the national teachers wanted to place the 6 in the 5 category. In addition, 44% of the teachers wanted to place the 4 paper in the 3

category, and 45% wanted to place the 3 in the 4 category (See Table 19).

Except for some reversals of the 3 and 4, almost three fourths of the national teachers agreed with the competency ranking of district teachers. The 3 and 4, the two middle papers, always show this kind of slippage because the middle distinction is always the hardest to make. The national teachers also estimated that 70% of their students fell at some point on the scale of 1 to 6. The teachers were asked to estimate how many of their students wrote papers better than the top paper and worse than the bottom paper. The teachers estimated that on the average about 26% of their students wrote papers better than the top, and 4% wrote papers worse than the bottom. Because the anchor papers were from ninth graders and the national teachers taught all grades from 7 to 12, we expected many of the students to write better and a few to write worse. In general, then, the scores seem representative of how teachers rank students in their classrooms and how teachers rank different levels of writing competency. Examples of the anchor papers, representing the range of student writing in the 14 classrooms, 21 being the bottom and 41 being the top, are shown in Figures 3 through 9 at the end of this chapter.

From these data, we can answer the question of how writing competency is distributed in the schools. In 1980, 5,892 students took the proficiency examination in writing and 29% passed. Students who do not pass the test must take the test again and again until they pass or drop out of school. Many 12th graders, then, must take the test several times in order to graduate. By the summer of 1980, 2,409 12th graders had been tested and 63.1% of them had written a passing essay and 61.4% of them had written a passing letter. Eight of the fourteen case study teachers are in three inner city high schools which scored lower than the district average on the letter or the essays or both:

SCHOOL	% PASSING ESSAY	% PASSING LETTER
Mosswood High	50.8	48.1
Hudson High	47.2	61.7
Mapleton Tech	54.2	58.9
Mapleton High	76.8	65.6
Riverview Jr. High	None	None

In this study's sample of case study students from grades 9 through 12, 38% had not passed the proficiency examination in writing (See Table 13).

The next question is what are the characteristics of the papers at various levels of competency. Thirty-six teachers in the district holistic scoring, including seven of the fourteen case study teachers, prepared a list of problems and strengths in student writing (see Table 20). 154 writing samples were randomly selected from the 1980 proficiency examination, and a research team began examining the papers for examples of the eighteen errors. When a glossary of sample errors had been prepared, the research team counted the occurrence of these eighteen errors in the 154 papers. Five of the eighteen errors showed a significant interaction with the proficiency score (See ANOVA test on Table 20): subject-verb agreement, commas for non-restrictive clauses, fragments, run-on sentences, and absence of past tense inflection. The papers were then arranged in score groups -- low (figures 3,4,5,all below passing on the profiency exam) middle (figure 6, just above passing), and high (figures 7 and 8, top papers) --- and a post hoc comparison was made between the three score groups and the five significant error categories. The comparison showed that the middle group did not significantly differ from the high group in any of the five categories, but that the low and middle groups significantly differed in use of the comma in non-restrictive clauses and fragments. Furthermore, the bottom group differed from the top group on four of the five categories. Absence of past tense inflection was not significant in any of the comparisons (See Table 21).

A check of four papers from twenty-five case study students showed a similar pattern of error. Students at all competency levels make mistakes in their writing, but the pattern of error in these 154 papers differed at different competency levels. The problem of the comma for the non-restrictive clause may have been partly a result of the fact that students who reach the middle competency range are beginning to write more than they formerly did. For example, 59% of the low competency writers in the sample from the proficiency examination had no errors of non- restrictive commas, but only 28.6% of the middle competency writers had no such errors in their papers. Over 30% of the papers from middle competency writers had 2 or more such errors.

The non-introductory fragment showed a different pattern of development. The non-introductory fragment

is a structure like "I ran four miles. Before I ate breakfast" or "entering the darkness of the cave. We tripped on a boulder." These structures can have many causes, some of them being merely matters of punctuation. But one important cause of the non-introductory fragment may be the absence of fluency in the bottom papers. 20.5% of the low competency writers wrote papers with one or more non-introductory fragments. However, none of the middle competency writers and only 2.3% of the high proficiency writers had such problems once in their papers.

The question is how to describe the different levels of competency found in student writing in secondary schools. The general view shaping this study, adopted from Myers (1982), is that the writing of secondary school students has at least three underlying speech events. That is, one of the things children learn about language is how to internalize in monologic form the speech events they hear in the external world. Later, when children learn to write, they have to change their "compact inner speech to maximally detailed written speech" (Vygotsky,1962:100). Thus, writing is a process of translating events which one hears in oral language to the written page.

Myers suggests that the movement from a low competency writer to a middle competency writer appears to be a movement from an encoding to a conversational and then a presentational speech event. In an encoding speech event(See Figure 3), the writer is struggling to learn the code, sometimes at the level of letter and word, and the aim is fluency. For the bottom writer, fluency develops out of an actual or simulated conversational speech event. In a presentational speech event (see Figure 6), the students are beginning to experiment with detachment between speaker and listener and with more subordination in the patterns of organization. The result is the movement from the conversational paper in Figure 6 to the presentational paper in Figure 8 (Myers, 1982).

One kind of paper is not represented in the six samples (Figures 3-8). That is the paper from the bilingual student who has writing problems which result from second language interference. Because two of the fourteen classes were bilingual classes for Hispanic students, because all of the schools except Mosswood High had 14% or more of the students from homes in which another language was spoken and because Spanish was the district's most common second language at home, a special study was conducted of the second language interference

problems. The purpose of the study of 44 student papers from bilingual classes was to identify writing problems which in some way could be associated with second language interference. Three main types were found: (1) spelling problems resulting from differences in pronunciation and spelling patterns; (2) a combination of syntactic and morphological problems, such as the nominalization of adjectives, a common practice in Spanish; and (3) stylistic problems, such as the avoidance of possessives. The study confirmed that some special writing problems appear in papers of bilingual students and do not appear in the papers of other students. However, the study also confirmed that some of the problems that bilingual teachers identify as bilingual problems are problems that appear in the papers of many non-bilingual students.

In summary, the Writing Episode in inner city secondary classrooms averages 16 minutes, consumes about one-third of the fifty minute class period, and produces writing at three competency levels, each with its distinctive problems and characteristics and sometimes with the added problem of second language interference problems. The patterns of problems in papers suggests that the reasons for "error" are not always well understood. Some "errors" result from second language interference problems, others from from the first time attempts of students to organize larger units of discourse, and still others from basic encoding problems. The picture that emerges is one in which the writing teacher is not facing some single challenge called the writing problem. At the level of the Writing Episode, the writing problem in inner city secondary schools is four different sets of problems --the problem of developing fluency for students struggling with encoding, the problem of fluent students learning to develop focus, particularly the ability to write to diverse audiences, the problem of students attempting to focus on new forms of organization, and the problem of students contending with second language interference.

Figure 3 No. 21

WRITING SAMPLE

Program produces
Adult
Oakland, Ca. 94606

I was in impression Buy my Mother she is a great woman of Love with her it is just me and my mother My father Not live with us me and my Mother go a lot of place together she she Involve with my sport and help me she make when I go to a good school and she make when I take good care of my body and I have and impression on my Mother Because she is a great Mother. Mrs Bob.

41-A

Figure 4
WRITING SAMPLE

No. 31

The person I remember the best was my bestfriend in elementary school she also live up the street from me. She had just move from Danbill. Her dog got lose and I helped her catch him. I never her for along time until she move We still try to keep in touch But I will never forget the memories.

Figure 5
WRITING SAMPLE

No. 5:

Hi there! My friend's name is [redacted]. She was born in Hong Kong. She was sixteen years old. This year she was in 10th grade. She was a real smart girl. And she had a big family.

In that time I was very happy living with Linda. She was very friendly and industrious, honest..... Even though she was my real good friend. When I was in Hong Kong I always went to school with Linda. We are the same grade. After school she always came to my home to study and helped me. On the weekends we went to the restaurant and went to the theater. We had fun every day.

After that I was very happy. When I came to the U.S. Linda gave me a beautiful jacket for me and say good-bye. Since she was my good friend. I always send the letters to her. And she sent me a letter that she was very bored. Time passed very quickly. I hope I'll go back to Hong Kong and have fun with Linda again. I've enjoyed working with my real good friend in Hong Kong.

It was a wonderful day.

Love

Chiu

Feb 15, 1979

41-C

Figure 6

No. 61

WRITING SAMPLE

I remember Aaron Miller because everyday after school he would come over my house and we would take turnes doing that. Aaron lived on Pleasant Street and right by me, that was all in the fifth grade we had so much fun together running to each, playing football on his grass, letting my dog tackle us run after us and best of all riding in the back of his dads truck.

I remember we used to bring cans to school along with straws and we would shoot paper through them at the clock. One day I went over his house and we were throwing rocks at some bushes and some bees flew out at us and we were running like mad bulls down the street. I remember those days and I remember him as my best friend.

41-D

Figure 7
WRITING SAMPLE

No. 71

"Great Impression"

Mrs. Christine Wilson was my teacher during my elementary years. She made a great impression on me. I remember her mostly because of the love and understanding she gave me. She was always there when I needed her, and she still is to this day. We had our ups and downs as normal people do, but we always managed to solve our problems.

She treated the other students as adults, not like fourth, fifth and sixth graders as we were. All of the other students as well as Teachers respected her. She has always made me feel like a daughter to her.

Today we are still very close friends even closer than before. She is one heck of a lady. I will always love Mrs. Wilson.

41-E

Figure 8 No. 41
WRITING SAMPLE

The person in my life who made a great impression on me was a friendly, stronghanded man, Mr Engstrom, who lived next door to me He was a man, rather old, about 85 or so. He was a grandfather figure to me. I called him Grandpa Engstrom.

As a child of about 7 years, I remember running over to visit him everyday after school. We used to sit by the fire sipping hot cocoa and he'd tell me all kinds of stories about his past. One story he told me, touched me so much, I shall never forget it as long as I live.

When he was 40 years old he was by himself in a cabin out in a forest and was accidently shot in the arm by a rifle. In this tragic accident his arm was half way blown off, but he didn't panic, he forced himself to get to a Train. He had to take the train to the nearest doctor who was about to leave away.

The doctor said his arm was to be amputated or he may die Grandpa Engstrom refused! He survived the surgery The strong willed man he was.

now but Grandpa Engstrom is dead
in his still look over
now just old vegtible garden, which is
away. words and I can see him wor

41-F

Table 19

NWP Teacher Ranking of Anchor Papers

District Ranking of Papers		Ranks Assigned by National Teachers											
		No. 1		No. 2		No. 3		No. 4		No. 5		No. 6	
Bottom-Top	Paper	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	21	97	91.5	8	7.5	1	0.9	--	--	--	--	--	--
2	31	8	7.5	96	90.6	2	1.9	--	--	--	--	--	--
3	51	1	0.9	--	--	45	42.5	48	45.3	10	9.4	2	1.9
4	61	--	--	1	0.9	47	44.3	34	32.1	22	20.8	2	1.9
5	71	--	--	--	--	8	7.5	21	19.8	49	46.2	28	26.4
6	41	--	--	1	0.9	3	2.8	3	2.8	25	23.6	74	69.8

Table 20

PILOT STUDY: Results of One-Way ANOVA
Independent variable: Score Category
Dependent Variables: Types of Errors
(Note: This table presents the results of nineteen separate ANOVA tests.)
*denotes significance with $p < .05$

ERROR TYPE	df	SS	MS	F	$\hat{\omega}^2$	Sign.	
Subj.-Verb Agr.							
Between	2	1.60	.7976	4.81	.06	*	(P < .0095)
Residual	151	25.06	.1660				
Total	153	26.66					
Pronoun Agr.							
Between	2	.651	.3255	2.98	.04		
Residual	151	16.47	.1091				
Total	153	17.1233					
Dangling Modifier							
Between	2	.1313	.0657	.644	.008		
Residual	151	15.4076	.1020				
Total	153	15.5389					
Double Negatives							
Between	2	.0	.0				
Residual	151	.0					
Total	153	.0					
Pronoun Case							
Between	2	.1515	.0757	.948	.012		
Residual	151	12.0628	.0799				
Total	153	12.2143					
Apostrophe Use							
Between	2	.6269	.3135	.364	.0048		
Residual	151	129.8658	.8600				
Total	153	130.4927					
Comma Use: Non-restrictive clauses							
Between	2	12.7297	.3649	7.198	.087	*	(P < .0010)
Residual	151	133.5294	.8843				
Total	153	146.2591					
Run-On Sentences							
Between	2	36.0796	18.0398	12.947	.15	*	(P < .0000)
Residual	151	210.3938	1.3933				
Total	153	246.4734					
Comma Use-Comma Splice							
Between	2	.1234	.0617	.055	.0007		
Residual	151	169.2783	1.1210				
Total	153	169.4017					
Omitted Article							
Between	2	.2435	.1217	.300	.004		
Residual	151	61.1847	.4052				
Total	153	61.4282					
Use of Wrong Article							
Between	2	.2947	.1473	.532	.007		
Residual	151	41.7896	.2768				
Total	153	42.0842					
Fragments: Introductory position							
Between	2	.1680	.0840	.766	.01		
Residual	151	16.5593	.1097				
Total	153	16.7272					

Table 20 (cont.)

ERROR TYPE	df	SS	MS	F	ω^2	Sign.
Fragment: non-introductory position						
Between	2	2.6565	1.3282	5.334	.07	* (P< .0058)
Residual	151	37.6029	.2490			
Total	153	40.2594				
Wrong Form of A Word						
Between	2	3.7367	1.8784	.760	.0099	
Residual	151	373.1839	2.4714			
Total	153	376.9404				
Absence of Past Tense Inflection						
Between	2	4.4578	2.2289	3.294	.042	* (P <.0398)
Residual	151	102.1652	.6766			
Total	153	106.6230				
Comma Use--In a Series						
Between	2	.3083	.1542	.483	.006	
Residual	151	48.2368	.3194			
Total	153	48.5451				
Improper Use of Infinitive						
Between	2	1.1690	.5845	1.569	.02	
Residual	151	56.2593	.3726			
Total	153	57.4282				
Comma Use: conjunctive adverbs, temporal conjunctions						
Between	2	.3287	.1644	2.312	.029	
Residual	151	10.7362	.0711			
Total	153	11.0647				
All Eighteen Errors Combined						
Between	2	123.3711	61.6855	3.663	.46	* (P <.0279)
Residual	151	2542.5210	16.8379			
Total	153	2665.8918				

* denotes significance with alpha at .05

Table 21

Post Hoc Paired Comparisons of the Three Proficiency Groups for Each of the Error Categories
Scheffe Value Significant if p<.05

	1 vs. 3	2 vs. 3	1 vs. 2
Subject-Verb Agreement	x		-
Comma use--non-restrictive clause	x		x
Fragments--non-intro.	x		x
Run-on Sentences	x		x
Absence Past-Tense Inflection	*		-
Total of 18 errors	x		x

* no comparison was significant

IV. THE LESSON: The Teacher as Instructor

The Writing Episode, as noted earlier, is embedded in two different types of organization, the classroom and the educational institution. This distinction is pervasive in the education community. Teachers describe their roles in teaching as divided between the classroom and everything else, and the literature on the organization of schools distinguishes between organizational roles, referring to school site councils and district committees, and performance roles, referring to tasks in the classroom (Fuller et al, 1982:9).

We have found it useful for understanding the data in this study to divide these two organizational structures into two levels, each with a different role for the teacher and each with an influence on the Writing Episode. At the institutional or organizational level, the teacher is a policy maker and member of a professional community, and at the classroom level, the teacher is the instructor of the Lesson and the manager of the Class Period. The focus in this chapter is on the Lesson and the teacher's role as instructor. The case study teachers in this study appeared to have four primary responsibilities as instructors of writing: (1) giving assignments, (2) planning assignments, (3) responding to writing, and (4) establishing class routines.

A. GIVING ASSIGNMENTS

Types of assignments used in selected writing classes were investigated in three ways--by asking students to answer a questionnaire on the frequency of various practices, by collecting on a questionnaire teachers' reports of practice and by counting and classifying various practices observed in the classroom.

Student Reports

Students were asked to rate the frequency of various instructional practices. Their ratings were based on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) very often to (5) hardly ever. Mean values and standard deviations of these ratings are presented by class type in Table 22.

The student reports show that some classes have one or two assignments which students perceive as very frequent ,and other classes have three or more assignments which are grouped very closely together in the frequency rankings. In General English, for example, students reported that written essays book reports, or letters, practice in organizing paragraphs, lectures or discussions, written homework assignments, and

exercises in grammar or mechanics were the most characteristic practices. But in Advanced classes lectures or discussions were by far the most frequently used classroom practice, followed by practice in writing or combining sentences, which received a rating of "sometimes." In Remedial classes, the practice of lectures or discussions was followed by exercises in grammar or mechanics and workbook exercises. Students in Composition classes reported that lectures or discussions and written homework assignments were the most frequently used practices in their classrooms. The practice of journal entries or free writing was reported most frequently in Bilingual classes, where it seems to be the only characteristic practice, and in Journalism classes, where lectures and discussion are equally dominant.

Teacher Reports

About 50 percent of the teachers in the national and local sample reported that their classes received "intensive writing instruction." In an average two-week period they assigned 6-7 pages of writing in class and another 4-5 pages of homework. About 30 - 50 percent of the assigned pages were notes, workbook or short answer exercises; the remainder were whole discourses or particular genre or types. Prewriting activities of various kinds were used frequently, according to reports of the teachers in the national sample; the local teachers reported frequent use of reading for prewriting but more occasional use of talking or writing activities (see Tables 23 and 24).

Teacher Observations

The study of types of assignments was based on observations of twelve classrooms. One functional class was eliminated from consideration because of the special nature of its writing assignments (Journalism) and one class was dropped because the number of individualized learning packets and assignments made counting the assignments unreliable. The observations in the twelve classrooms usually occurred twice weekly over a period of three months, from late February through May 1982. Table 17 lists the classrooms and observations on which the study of assignment types is based. Table 25 lists the writing assignments by class and assignment type.

The assignments observed in the teachers' classes were grouped around five kinds of emphasis: (1) reading, (2) skills, (3) ideas, (4) rhetoric, and (5) multiple emphasis. The data used to group assignments were (1)the verbal instructions recorded in the notes,

(2)the written instructions on the blackboard, also recorded in the notes, (3)the written instructions on handouts which were attached to the Writing Episode summaries, (4) the observers descriptions in the notes, and (5) the observers description on the Writing Episode summaries. As noted earlier, case study teachers participated in the grouping of assignments. The definitions that follow show the instructions given for the assignment and the description of what the students did.

I. Reading Emphasis

A. Reading without Composing

Definition: For the assignment which follows, students wrote either letters, words or short phrases in answer to questions on a reading skills test.

B. Reading with Composing

Definition: For the assignment which follows, students wrote in learning logs in order to process work done in class.

Observation:	
Written Instructions	Observer Description
"Topic, Annie is determined." "Show, not tell learning log"	Students write learning log on The Miracle Worker

II. Skills Emphasis

If an assignment focuses on skills, students are asked to demonstrate a skill on the sentence level and asked to write a word, phrase, or sentence. This category is further elaborated by Applebee's (1981) description of Mechanical Uses of Writing:

> (this set of tasks) involve the use of written language, but in one way or another allow the student to bypass the problem of creating extended, coherent text. All tend to emphasize the accuracy of the specific information being supplied by the student rather than the ability to organize and present information coherently.

Assignments focusing on skills varied with respect

to the demands placed on students. We developed a classification system for skills assignments, based on their apparent difficulty for the student. Following are four subcategories of assignments arranged by increasing level of difficulty:

A. Copying

Copying assignments ask students to record information, verbatim, which is printed either on an overhead projector, on paper, on a filmstrip or on the board. Copying assignments make the fewest demands on the writer. Both content and organization are supplied, and the student's task is simply to record given information.

B. Dictation

Dictation assignments ask students to record information that is given orally. Dictation assignments are more demanding than copying assignments as students must record oral language and depend on memory. Teachers typically used dictation assignments as punctuation drills. However, students were not asked to apply punctuation rules in new contexts, rather they were asked to correctly use punctuation in passages they had already seen.

C. Recording

Recording assignments ask students to record information for administrative purposes. Unlike assignments focusing on copying and dictation, where students are given both organization and content, recording assignments generally ask students to supply their own content, although that content is usually minimal.

D. Rules of Syntax

Rules of syntax assignments are most demanding of skills assignments as students must apply a rule (to a new situation). These assignments are grouped primarily as Producing or Non Producing. A producing assignment asks students to produce or create material for instruction. For example, students may be asked to write sentences showing the use of the comma. A non-producing assignment requires that students work only with

material with which they are supplied. For example, students may be asked to punctuate sentences on a ditto.

These two groups, Producing/Non Producing, are then described further by subgroups, Small/Large. If an assignment asks students to attend to a word or a phrase, it focuses attention on a small unit of syntax. If an assignment asks students to attend to several components of a sentence at once or consider more than one sentence, it focuses attention on a large unit of syntax.

In our data collection, there were some assignments simply asking students to punctuate sentences without specifying a particular type of punctuation. Such assignments are categorized as focusing on small units of syntax as we assumed that a typical punctuation assignment would focus on small units of syntax and might, for example, ask students to place commas in a series of items. The students in this group are not being asked to produce sentences. However, all sentence combining assignments are categorized as Producing/Large as students are reworking sentences to produce one of several alternatives.

The chart below shows examples of skills assignments. Key words which were determining factors in identifying assignments as skills are italicized.

Skill	Instructions	Classroom Observer's Descrip. of Writing S's do
Copying	"*Write this down* while I'm taking roll...these are called idioms"	Students *copy* idiomatic expressions from board
Dictation	"Take out pencil and paper. I will *dictate* sentences."	Students take *dictation*
Recording	"Write on work *Record sheets*"	Students record work on work activity sheets

Rules of Syntax Producing Large	"Giving you sentences on the board...While I'm doing that want you to *write some sentences of your own* (Instructs S's to write 5 sentences for each of three rules that have been discussed)"	Students write sentences showing *S-V agreement*
Small	"Go ahead, *write a letter*	Students write a friendly letter, *demonstrating punctuation marks* (commas in salutations, addresses, closing).
Non-Producing Large	T reviews use of comma, instructs in use of semi-colon.	Students *place semi-colon* insertions on *worksheet.*
Small	"You're only going to put *capital letters where necessary, press* to see what you know about capitalization."	prequiz/capitalization

III. Ideas Emphasis

Assignments which focus on Discussion of Ideas elicit students' thoughts or feelings. Such assignments ask students to generate thought, and thus concentrate on content, rather than style and mechanics. These assignments may also ask students to organize ideas. Five subcategories describe the range of assignments focusing on discussion of ideas: fluency, prewriting,, note taking vocabulary, and sustained writing. These subcategories are arranged in order of increasing demands on students. The general criterion for "increasing demands" here is whether the assignment asks for "writer based" or "reader based" prose (using the distinctions of Flower, 1979). When an assignment is more writer based-- that is, where the students need only be concerned with the writing as it makes sense to them--the assignment is classified as less demanding. Conversely, when an assignment must make sense to another reader, the assignment was classified as more demanding. The examples below illustrate the shift from writer-based prose in which the student is writing for learning to reader-based prose in which the student

is using writing to convey information to someone else. five subcategories. Key words in the assignment are italicized.

Type	Instruction	Classroom Observer's Descrip. of Writing S's Do
Fluency	"When I say go, *write as many memories* you can. Approximately 10 minutes. *Not to worry about punctuation and spelling.* START."	Students write as many memories as they can in timed instruction.
Pre-Writing	"Write as *many words as you associate with the word* "black." *Clustering.* Put down all the words that come to mind when you think of word "black."	Clustering around the word "black."
Notetaking	"all right, *forms of discourse notes.*"	students take notes on teacher's lecture.
Vocabulary sentences)	"OK, do this now *(write* and maybe in about twenty minutes we'll check them over." (expressions on board)."	Students *write sentences with idiomatic expressions.*
Sustained Writing	"These are topics for the week...All right, your *essay is due at the end of the period.*"	Students choose one topic from the following and write an essay-- 1. The chief problem with mankind is that man is not kind. 2. To lose loyally one point. 3. Only questions for which there are no answers are worth consideration. 4. The most worthy sciences are those without practical use.

The qualities of these five assignments are as follows:

A. Assignments asking students to write for fluency and for prewriting remove almost all formal constraints, allowing the student to focus solely on getting thoughts and feelings down on paper. Fluency assignments are complete in themselves because the student is not expected to do anything except hand in the material. In prewriting assignments, however, students are asked to generate ideas for further development. Journal writing and brief timed writing are examples of fluency assignments, and mapping is an example of prewriting. Both types of assignments attempt to develop an easy flow in writing by removing concern for the appearance of the text, and these

assignments are the pure forms of using writing to learn in the classroom.

B. Notetaking assignments ask students to take notes from either printed material or from the teacher's lecture, requiring that students reformulate the material that is given. These notes are writer-based and examples of writing to learn because they do not have to be intelligible to anyone except the student. They are ,as Applebee describes them, "a form of thinking aloud on paper" (Applebee,1981:29). However, because students must reformulate material from an outside source accurately, note taking was classified as slightly more reader-based than prewriting or fluency exercises where students generate their own material.

C. Vocabulary assignments ask students to choose the correct definition for a word or to define words by using either a phrase, sentence or paragraph. Vocabulary assignments seek to generate thought by asking students to integrate a new word into their vocabulary and use that word to express a new idea. Vocabulary assignments introduce a constraint not present in either fluency, prewriting, or notetaking assignments; these assignments may be examined by the teacher for correct word usage, and the student must then shift from using writing for learning to using writing to convey right answers to the teacher.

D. Sustained writing assignments ask students to write in response to a topic of either the teacher's or the student's choice. Students write for either the majority of a class period, a complete class period or over several class periods. These assignments differ from both fluency and prewriting assignments as students must not only generate ideas but must also organize those ideas for another reader, the teacher. Because sustained writing assignments ask students to attend to textual considerations and to write for another audience, these assignments are the most reader-based of the idea assignments.

IV. Rhetorical Emphasis

Assignments were determined to focus on rhetorical elements if the teacher or assignment specified an

audience or if students were to write in a particular genre.

Assignments specifying audience place fewer demands on students than those specifying genre: audience considerations require students to consciously select an appropriate voice while genre stipulations introduce additional constraints of textual form. The following types of writing are considered genre assignments: business letter, friendly letter, short story, poetry, description, expository essay (critical, compare/contrast). Paragraph and essay are considered to stipulate length, rather than form.

Below are examples of two assignments focusing on rhetorical elements of audience and genre. Key words which were factors in categorizing assignments as focusing on rhetorical elements are underlined.

Assignment	Instructions	Classroom Observer's Descrip. of Writing S's Do
Audience	"When I say 'start,' going to ask you to *write as if you are telling close friend*. Skip 2 lines, starting something new. You're walking in hall. VP or Principal says 'What's up?' Now *going to tell some experience to principal or VP. Now write as if in a newspaper article.*"	Students write the *same incident to three different audiences.*
Genre	Students copy notes from overhead, teacher demonstrates syllabification. Students read *aloud haikus from overhead.*	Students write *haikus.*

V. Multiple Focus

Assignments were categorized as multiple focus if the verbal and/or written instructions and possibly the observer's description of the writing episode emphasized more than one of the focus categories. Following are descriptions and examples of the eight multiple focus categories.

A. Reading with an Emphasis on Skills and without Composing

Assignments in this category ask students to answer questions in response to assigned reading and, further, to attend to sentence level skills. For example, in one assignment, students were asked to write answers, in complete sentences, to questions in reading skills workbooks.

Verbal Instructions	Classroom Observer's Descrip. of Writing S's Do
"Read section in *Be a Better Reader*. Answer these questions in usual way in complete sentences, capital letter."	Students read selection in *Be a Better Reader* and questions.

B. Reading with Composing and Skills

Assignments focusing on Reading with Composing and Skills ask students to write in response to reading and further, to attend to sentence level appearance of the text. In one assignment, for example, students wrote several paragraphs in response to a short mystery story and procfread for sentence level errors.

Verbal Instructions	Written Instructions
"This is *essentially a writing assignment* In your mind try to see what happened, one thing at a time...Avoid little details, stick to the main facts... What crime was and how he solved it."	*1. Read carefully* 2. Use extra clues and solve mystery. 3. *Write a few paragraphs* (at least 10 sentences) explaining-- A. What the crime was *(use short sentences)* B. The characters and what Sleuth hears from them and about them. C. How Sleuth solves the mystery. *Proofread and rewrite.*

C. Reading with Composing and Rhetoric

Assignments focusing on reading with composing and rhetoric ask students to write, in a particular genre, in response to reading:

Verbal Instructions	*Written Instructions*
"*Assignment on worksheet.* If you had read the book you'll be able to do it."	*An analysis of the Novel The Pearl--* An important part of Kino's dream is to send his son to school. In an essay, discuss how education can help an oppressed people. (consider the part education plays in the third world today). Consider also whether education might bring disillusionment and unhappiness to someone like Kino and his son.

D. Reading with Composing and Rhetoric and Skills

Assignments focusing on reading with composing and rhetoric and skills ask students to write in response to reading and additionally, to attend to sentence level skills. For example, in writing final drafts, students attended to sentence level skills as well as genre stipulations.

Instructions	Classroom Observer's Descrip. of Writing S's Do
"I'd also like your compositions today. You're moving too slow.	Students write *final drafts* of essays on *Puddin'-Head Wilson.*

E. Rhetoric and Skills

Assignments focusing on rhetoric and skills ask students to write in a particular genre and to attend to sentence level skills. For example, students rewrote news stories, attending to sentence level skills.

Verbal Instructions	Classroom Observer's
"OK students, you're going to *rewrite*, more complete on lineless paper.	Students *rewrite news stories*--write news stories from lead to fine details--who, what, where, when, why and how to be accepted by any newspaper.

E. Ideas and Skills

Assignments focusing on Discussion of Ideas and Skills ask students to generate ideas while attending to sentence level skills. For example, students write in a journal that was to be corrected for sentence level errors.

Verbal Instruction	Classroom Observer's Descrip. of Writing S's Do
"If you notice in your *journals*, some have not been *corrected*...since I couldn't complete, I'll give them back to you so you can write in them today. Write about "When I get angry." Tell about how you react. 5-8 minutes.	Journal writing. Teacher supplied topic.

G. Rhetoric and Discussion of Ideas

Assignments focusing on rhetorical elements and discussion of ideas ask students to do a sustained piece of writing in either a particular genre or for a specified audience, and further; to focus on ideas and content. An example follows:

Verbal Instructions	Classroom Observer's Descrip. of Writing S's Do
"I hope you'd have those essays ready to turn in by tomorrow because I have to turn them to the *other people*."(audience)	Students write *contest essays*. Choose one of the following topics 1. How my college education will help my community. (Pacific Telephone) 2. Biography of a Black Hero. (Marcus Foster Educational Institute) 3. How the freedom to own property would affect my future. (Mapleton Board of Realtors)

H. Rhetoric and Ideas and Skills

Assignments focusing on rhetorical elements, ideas and skills ask students to discuss ideas paying attention to sentence level skills. An example follows:

Verbal Instructions	Written Instructions
"You can either write about you becoming angry or about someone else becoming angry. You must use examples...at least 1-1/2 pages. Now I will *be grading this for spelling...This is going to be in our next section Descriptive writing*...Make sure *you use good paragraphs.*	*Topic*--People sometimes do things to make others angry either accidentally or on purpose. Describe a situation in *which you (or someone else) got angry and tell what you did about it.*

Table 25 shows the distribution of the number of assignments in five areas of assignment emphasis. Table 26 reports the time spent on the different types of assignments. Of the 276 writing assignments observed in the 262 classrooms with writing, 41.3 percent were skills assignments, taking 27 percent of all the time devoted to writing, 33 percent were idea assignments, taking 38 percent of all the time devoted to writing, 9 percent were reading assignments, taking 10 percent of all the time devoted to writing, and 11 percent were multiple focus assignments, taking 19 percent of all the time devoted to writing. The assignments which require almost no composing (reading assignments requiring no composing, copying, dictation, recording, fill-in-the-blank assignments, and producing assignments with only small units like words and phrases) comprise 42 percent of all the assignments observed

The study of the Writing Episode in the last chapter showed that all observed writing assignments averaged 16 minutes. However, the study of assignment types shows that some types of assignments take substantially longer. The average time for each type of assignment was 18 minutes for writing from reading, 21 minutes for rhetoric, 18 minutes for ideas, 10 minutes for skills, and 26 minutes for multiple focus.

The distribution of time devoted to writing, both average time per assignment and percent of total class time spent writing is shown in Table 27. The assignments showed an interesting distribution across class types. First, composition and advanced classes had very few non-composing assignments, concentrating in skill development on assignments like sentence combining, which require the students to produce sentences, not just words and phrases. Of the 43 percent devoted to skill assignments Composition classes had 2.9 percent and Advanced classes had 4.4 percent. The other classes had approximately equal proportions: General English classes 12.3 percent, Remedial 12.3 percent, and Bilingual 11.3 percent. Most classes spend about

one-third of all class time on writing assignments, but Bilingual classes spend 41 percent and Advanced classes spend 25 percent. Composition classes have the longest average time per assignment in class, 29 minutes, and the other classes range from 19 minutes on the average in Advanced classes to 24 minutes or the average in Bilingual classes.

From the point of view of the students, as noted earlier, the most frequent activity in writing classes was a lecture by the teacher or a discussion, and this happened most frequently in Advanced classes and least frequently in Bilingual classes. The Advanced classes spent 13% of their class time on idea assignments, and 9% on skills (See Table 25). Other types of assignments received almost no attention. The Advanced classes had more lecture and discussion, a smaller proportion of class time spent writing, and the smallest average writing time per assignment. The students in the Advanced classes did not perceive that they were receiving frequent written homework assignments. In general, the students in Advanced classes did not perceive writing as a frequent class activity.

The Bilingual classes, on the other hand, had a much higher proportion of writing time in class. The Bilingual classes also were given more assignments in journals and diaries, both types helping students experiencing encoding problems to develop fluency. The tenth grade Remedial class also had a similar emphasis on journals and diaries, again an emphasis that seemed appropriate to the encoding difficulties faced by many of the tenth grade Remedial students. The two Remedial classes, like the Bilingual classes, averaged over 40% of total class time devoted to writing. 16% of the class time in Remedial classes was devoted to idea assignments, 10% to skills, 6% to reading, and 7% to multiple focus assignments. Rhetoric took 3% of the class time. Even though idea assignments took more time, skill assignments appeared with greater frequency in remedial classes and were peceived by students as most frequent.

The proportion of class time devoted to various writing assignments showed great diversity in General English classes: 10% for skills, 6% for ideas, 6% for reading, 6% for multiple focus, and 1% for rhetoric. The Composition classes shifted the emphasis to ideas (12%) and multiple focus (12%). Rhetoric had 5%, skills 2%, and reading 2%.

When the national and local teachers were asked to

name their "peeves" about student writing (Table 28), the problems they face teaching writing (Table 29), or the most critical aspects of writing (Table 30), basic skills was either first or second in the listing of the most frequent responses. When the national and local teachers were asked to rank the frequency of specific assignments in their classes, they reported mechanics as first or second in frequency (Tables 31 and 32). In general, skill assignments were the most frequent assignments which teachers gave in the observed classrooms, but skill assignments took only 9% of the total class time, and idea assignments took 12% of the total class time. When teachers were not reporting mechanics as the most frequent assignment, they were reporting assignments on expressing feelings as most frequent. Assignments on expressing feelings appeared in the data to be similar to the idea assignments, which ,as noted above, were found in the observations to be the second most frequent assignment and to consume the greatest proportion of total class time.

This kind of assignment helps students develop fluency through sustained writing on some topic, memory writing, notetaking, and so forth. The fit between this type of assignment releasing students from considerations about focus and form and allowing them to attend to fluency and the reported needs of students was not as explicitly stated by the teachers as the fit they reported between basic skills assignments and and student need. Basic skill assignments are reported as a frequent practice by national and local teachers (Table 31 and 32) --standard English and mechanics ranking in the top three in the reponses of both national and local teachers --and at the same time both groups of teachers ranked basic skills as first or second in a listing of "peeves" about student writing, problems teaching writing, and critical aspects of writing (Tables 28,29,30). However, although both national and local teachers ranked "expressing feelings" as their first or second most frequent assignment, a ranking which seemed to be supported by the high number of idea assignments in observed classes, the teachers did not clearly identify a need for these assignments in their listing of "peeves" about student writing, problems teaching writing, or critical aspects. "Write more" is listed seventeen on the national list of critical aspects, "writing freely" is listed five and six on problems, and none of the "peeves" seem to focus on encoding problems. The fact that idea assignments occur frequently shows that teachers are aware of the need for such assignments, but the teachers' lists of problems, "peeves," and aspects suggests that the language for this need has not yet been firmly established among teachers.

B. PLANNING ASSIGNMENTS

One image embedded in the school as an institution and in the research on educational decision making is the image of the good teacher as a careful planner of lessons. One researcher says, "Teachers' scripts for planning instruction probably differ as a function of goal emphasis" (Shavelson, 1981: 491). The school as an institution reasons that if planning procedures must vary to fit different goals, then goal directed lessons in classes must be preceded by some kind of planning prior to class, and if teachers are to work toward common goals, then planning must be comprehensive and in large units.

All of the local teachers reported being involved in district efforts to get teachers to prepare lists of goals and objectives, and policy makers reported that the district required written plans in a formal lesson book. However, the local teachers reported that there was a widespread absence of lesson plans written in advance. One teacher reported that the school principal, in preparation for a site visit from the new district superintendent, called a special faculty meeting at which the principal said he expected to be able to walk into any teacher's room that day and see the official lesson plan book opened to the page containing the complete lesson for that day. The teacher informant said that for the remainder of the school day teachers joked with each other in the halls and the teachers' lounge about whether lesson plans were being prominently displayed, many teachers commenting that they used the plan books to record what had already happened, not necessarily to plan what would happen.

The question is,then, how do teachers plan and how do planning styles interact with the teachers' choice of composition assignments and with the skill level of the students. Data on all fourteen case study teachers were collected in interviews and teacher logs over a period of 10 months. The data collection procedures and the data analysis procedures are described below.

Procedures: Interviews

All teachers completed 3-5 hours of tape recorded interviews. Most were conducted by the same interviewer; time limitations made it necessary to call upon two other individuals to complete interviews with two of the teachers, but the interviewers all worked from

the same schedule of interview questions (Appendix B). Because the interviews were intended to reflect as much as possible the individual teacher's own thinking about students, curriculum, teaching methods and institutional constraints, any points raised which seemed important (by virtue of intonation or prosodic cues given by the teacher, or because of topical interest to the interviewer) were pursued in more depth. However, all teachers answered the same set of basic questions in the interview schedule.

The interviews were conducted in the final two weeks of school and during the three weeks following the close of school. Because the interviews were lengthy, the teachers were encouraged to schedule 2 or 3 interview appointments. Most were able to do so. In four cases, however, the entire interview was completed in one sitting. This format did not seem to inhibit teachers' responses; some of the most lengthy and discursive interviews were obtained in these single sessions.

The teachers demonstrated considerable variation in their willingness and ability to elaborate on the questions raised by the interviewers. In many cases, the interviews turned into "thinking aloud" sessions, where teachers remarked that they had never consciously thought about some of the topics; almost all stated that had not had a chance to discuss their beliefs so extensively with other professionals.

Procedures: Observations

All teachers were observed for approximately 14 weeks in Spring, 1981. A description of the training of these observers and the reliability of their observation procedures can be found in Myers and Thomas, Volume II, 1982. Whenever observation data is employed in the present report, it will be identified as such; unless so specified, all data comes from the teachers' own reports.

Procedures: Teacher Logs

Teachers in the study were asked to keep logs of their plans for a two-week period and to record any changes from their plans that actually occurred, along with comments on how the students reacted and how they might change the curriculum the next time they taught it. A copy of the directions the teachers received appears in Appendix B. Most teachers found log-

keeping too time consuming and instead merely recorded the activities which occurred. In effect these logs resembled the formal lesson plans that teachers are required to turn in to their school administrations and most often consisted of lists of curriculum which had been covered. The teacher interviews, which were conducted after the logs were completed, offered an opportunity to question teachers in more detail about their plans and divergences from them. However, the general impression of the interviewers and the reports of some teachers indicated that this retrospective reconstruction of plans was possibly unreliable and certainly lacking in detail about the process of planning. The data collected in these portions of the interviews are offered for descriptive purposes and, perhaps more accurately, should be considered teachers' "idealized" memories of plans and planning processes.

Data Analysis

Interview Data Coding

Interview data are coded in the categories listed below. In most cases these categories related directly to responses given to a particular question; in other cases, data from several questions or from other parts of the interviews are synthesized.

1. Content of Teacher Plans

   1.1 Unit of Detailed Planning: time block or period for which a teacher typically organized his/her most detailed plans.

   1.2 Focus of Plans: minimum content of planning sessions: typically identified as objectives or goals, curriculum materials, subject matter, or student instructional tasks.

   1.3 Class Routines: These activities typically require no planning by the teacher other than the identification of their expected use and preparation of related handouts or materials. They incluce behavior patterns of teacher or students (e.g. assignment structuring); instructional activities or tasks (e.g. journal writing); assignment content (e.g. Scope Mini Mysteries) or activity structure (e.g. individual seatwork, small group work, large class discussion).

   1.4 Influence on Planning: aspects of

student behavior, the instructional environment or institutional environment which teachers reported as influencing their plan content.

2.0 Teacher Planning Processes

2.1 Lead Time: the amount of time in advance of teaching a lesson in which, a teacher's plans were typically completed.

2.2 Longest Reported Plan Unit: the longest time duration of a plan.

2.3 Planning Place: the location in which planning typically took place.

2.4 Materials or Supplies Created: any handouts or resource materials which a teacher had to prepare in order to carry out plans.

2.5 Sources of Ideas: the resources (including books, periodicals, other materials, and people) a teacher typically called upon or used in order to plan.

2.6 District or School Curriculum Guides: formal statements of course objectives provided by the school district or school site department.

2.7 Formal Lesson Plans: those formal statements of plans which teachers were required to have on hand in case of absence and to turn in at the end of the school year; in some schools these were checked every two months by the administration.

2.8 Planning Time: average amount of time a teacher spent planning activities; two sources were used: teacher interviews and teacher questionnaires.

2.9 Planning Process: report by an individual teacher of the process involved in selecting instructional content and methods for a particular lesson and preparing to teach it in the classroom.

2.10 Plan Form: the concrete form plans took prior to a lesson being taught (these

might be comprised of a briefly sketched list, books underlined or marked for quotation, and so on).

3.0 Relation of Plans to Class Activities

3.1 Previewing: any form of communication of plan to students.

3.2 Observed or Reported Changes of Plans: (drawn from observers' notes as well as from teacher interviews), observable discrepancy between previously announced plans and classroom realities.

3.3 Causes of Changed Plans: events or reasons a teacher reported as the basis for changing plans.

3.4 Types of Changes Allowed in Plans: kinds of activities or behavior which a teacher would accept in lieu of prior-planned activities.

3.5 Communication of Reasons for Changes of Plans to Students: the way a teacher would communicate the reasons for changes of plans to students.

3.6 Alternatives Ready for Last Minute Changes: the types of alternative activities a teacher had ready to substitute for changed plans.

Teachers were asked to describe how they typically planned for assignments given in the their case study classrooms. If their planning practices varied for different types of assignments, then multiple responses were recorded for a particular question. During the interview, assignments which appeared in the two week logs and in the classroom observations were used to probe teacher planning practices. All teacher comments on planning were compiled. An entry of an X on any table means that an individual teacher labeled that practice or event as typical or made repeated references to that practice or event. The percentages on the tables refer to the proportion of teachers who labeled or reported that practice or event as typical.

The planning styles of the fourteen teachers seemed to correspond to the Comprehensive and Incremental planning styles identified by Clark and Yinger (1980).

1. The Incremental Planners: Those who planned in detail for single assignments which typically involved no more than one class period of instruction but could extend for up to a week or more, depending on students' speed in completing the assignment.

2. The Comprehensive Planners: Those who planned either by curriculum unit (which could include several different lessons and last from one to four weeks) or by time period of one to three weeks (including several different assignments and periods of instruction).

Typical Time Length of Unit of Detailed Planning

An important contrast between the styles of Incremental and Comprehensive Planners results from the different limits they set on a unit of detailed planning. Comprehensive Planners typically develop detailed instructional plans for larger units while Incremental Planners are concerned with smaller units. These units might be defined in terms of time (eg. one day vs. one week) or of curriculum content (one assignment vs. a combination of several assignments).

As illustrated in Table 33, the size of the unit provides a basis for a clear distinction among the teachers. None of the Incremental Planners developed detailed plans for more than a single assignment or day; when an assignment did extend over several days, the teacher allowed students to complete their work on the assignment, without giving additional instruction. Thus, no extra planning was required even when assignments stretched over several days (see Table 33).

The Comprehensive Planners seem to fall into two groups--those who planned for a single school week and those who worked in curriculum units, which varied from one to eighteen weeks in length. The first group set time boundaries on their plan unit, but did not restrict themselves to this time period; activities begun in one week might extend into the next week. The second group, in contrast, paid attention only to curriculum boundaries and (as will be seen below) comfortably altered their time schedule to suit the curriculum unit boundaries they had set. Both of these groups typically worked with larger units than did the Incremental Planners. Differences in the length of typical plan units proved to be statistically significant for Comprehensive vs. Incremental planners.

Longest Plan Unit

Another measure indicating differences among the planning preferences of the teachers is their longest reported plan unit. These might focus on skills sequences (e.g. sentence combining exercises) or on a work of literature (e.g. The Jungle) or on a theme-centered unit (eg. future careers). Most of the teachers in each group tended to report similar lengths of plans, with the Incremental Planners ranging from 3-5 days and the Comprehensive Planners from one to six weeks. In both groups one teacher reported a semester-length plan: these involved a routine instructional format with the lesson content chosen from sequential lessons in a skills workbook or curriculum text. For purposes of comparing the typical response of each group, the means were computed, leaving out those two teachers who reported semester-length plans, because inclusion of them would have resulted in misleadingly high means for both groups. When the two teachers with semester-length plan units are not considered, the mean length of the longest plan unit is 13 days or about two and one half school weeks for the comprehensive and 4 days for the Incremental Planners (Table 34). This measure serves to validate further a teachers' inclusion in either of the two groups.

Time and Content Boundary Style:

In the process of classifying teachers as either Comprehensive or Incremental Planners, it became apparent that they might be grouped according to another distinction. Some of the teachers appeared to establish their planning units by setting time boundaries, usually related to the school week. Other teachers reported working within content boundaries, usually either an assignment or a series of assignments within an instructional unit. The "time boundary" teachers, would characteristically describe their planning as taking place within a chosen time frame: assignments or activities could continue beyond that time frame, however the planning unit was restricted to that frame.The "content boundary" teachers typically focused on the content to be covered: once that was established they would "map" the content onto the schedule, perhaps making adjustments in the content to suit restrictions of the schedule. However, the basic planning unit was "content-bound."

The data reported below on plan focus, planning processes, and relationship of plans to classroom activities were also analyzed according to the time-content boundary distinctions.

The interesting question was whether the time-content distinction would reveal any additional differences in planning processes. The responses of teachers grouped in this fashion revealed far fewer significant differences than those related to the Incremental- Comprehensive planing styles. Because so few differences between time and content boundary groups proved to be significant, there will be no detailed discussion of the responses of the teachers when divided in these groups.

3.0 Findings: Overview

There was considerable diversity in teachers' descriptions of their planning practices. Yet two teachers emerged who seem to typify most clearly the differences between Comprehensive and Incremental planning styles. In order to appreciate this fully, and to establish a context in which the data from the other teachers can be understood, these two will be examined in detailed case study form. Following these two portraits, summary data for all the teachers will be presented and discussed.

C. TWO CASE STUDIES OF TEACHER PLANNING PRACTICES

Perhaps the most Comprehensive Planner of all is Ms. Jeannette Grover, who uses planning as a means of orchestrating complex instructional units as well as balancing a busy professional and personal life. Her planning and preparation for teaching her twelfth grade, general English classes permeated her daily life, a good portion of which she devotes to learning and keeping informed. Ms. Grover stated that she is "always planning." She reported that she reads extensively, spending $50 - $75 each month on books. Each time she read a book she thought her students might like, she marked it up (underlining prospective vocabulary words and writing questions and comments inside the back cover) with the expectation that it might be used in one of her classes at some time in the future. Upon completing any book she particularly liked, she would type up ditto masters with vocabulary words and study and essay questions, so that it would be ready to use in an instructional unit. She also clipped articles from periodicals which she thought might be interesting to students in a particular class. She said that the acquisition of curriculum materials was up to the individual in her school: every year each

English teacher receives a modest sum ($50 - $100) for purchasing new books. With careful management she could purchase a few new sets of paperback books each year to add to those she has accumulated.

She reported that she set aside no particular time during the week aside specifically for planning. Rather, she workeds on unit plans whenever she had free time, primarily at home though sometimes at school. Her reported lead time (or point at which she completed plans and prepared materials for upcoming units) is one month. She stated that she hates anything "raggedy" and that there is already too much of that in the public schools: "I refuse to be a part of it." Thus, she might start teaching one unit at the same time she is planning for the upcoming one. Because her units often lasted 3-4 weeks, she attempts to have materials ready at least one month before she expects to use them.

Her units flow into one another "organically," depending upon her assessment of student interests and of the knowledge that is most valuable for them to acquire. The units might be related by similar characters, points of view, subject matter, literary techniques, or skills to be practiced from one to the next. Most of her units focus on works of literature; a few center on a topic such as "careers," with materials drawn from periodicals or other sources. She teaches skills primarily in the context of reading and writing assignments, but she occasionally devotes an entire unit to a particular skill such as sentence structure and variety. She credits careful planning with allowing her to get "mileage" out of her units. She sets high performance standards for students, and expects them to engage in critical thinking and response to their reading and the ideas of their peers. Discussion and essay questions might be designed to develop an understanding of "...literature, history, human growth and development, human relationships, language, contemporary events, and so on." Ms. Grover believes that you get this "mileage only if you plan and think about it." To accomplish these purposes, she routinely includes the same activities in any unit: vocabulary development (through writing definitions and sentences and taking a test), reading, small group work (discussion of the reading and small group reports to the class, as well as peer editing of student writing), note taking and essay writing, and a final essay test or paper.

Her planning focus consists of choosing content and sequence for her routine activities, given her general goal of "getting as much mileage as possible" out of each unit. She reported that, in addition to her own reading, she uses information from friends and

other professionals as resources in developing units. As frequently as possible, she will tailor her choice of unit topics and activities to student interests and needs. These she determines at the beginning of the year by a questionnaire given to students. Although only half her students might continue their formal education after high school, Ms. Grover maintains her high academic expectations, believing that the critical thinking, reading, and writing skills she teaches are basic survival skills for minority youth, whether or not they go to college. She said that too often she has seen American or immigrant minority individuals ignored or humiliated because of their lack of facility with standard English. She believes that the language skills she teaches can become essential tools in overcoming the prejudice that her students will face.

Another unique feature of Ms. Grover's planning style was her use of previewing. She was observed to inform students at the beginning of the class period of the agenda for the day, and often to pause at transitional points during a period to remind them of upcoming tasks, and always to spend a few minutes on Friday previewing activities for the upcoming week. When asked about her reasons for doing so she said:

> It may be part of my personality style. I have always been organized and disciplined. I don't like anything raggedy. I believe that students are captive audiences and will be more likely to do what they are asked if they are told clearly what is expected of them. Otherwise it's too easy to waste time.

Ms. Grover is also unique in her ability to stick to announced plans. She was never observed to vary from announced plans. When asked whether she ever had to change plans because of unexpected events occurring at the last minute, she said that the occasion almost never arose. She made it clear to students and to administrators that she did plan carefully and that she expected no interruptions or last minute problems.

Thus she seems to be able to "screen out" or minimize many of the institutionally-based interruptions which <u>all</u> other teachers in the study reported as an unalterable fact of school life. Students in her classes are expected to keep regular attendance; if they "cut" or take time to go on a field trip she does not consider appropriate, they know they cannot make up the work they miss. To a remarkable degree this policy seems to deter absences; attendance on days observed was consistently high. Likewise, there were almost no

interruptions from the outside. Once, when a prescheduled representative who talked to the class about school rings began to take up more than his allotted time, Ms. Grover was observed to begin tapping her feet and, after about five minutes, interrupt saying that she wished to resume class. We can only assume that the virtual absence of such problems in her class is at least in part due to her own efforts to control her instructional environment.

Mr. Dennis Gordon's planning practice contrasts to that of Ms. Grover in a number of ways. He, too, teaches a general English class, though of ninth, not twelfth graders. During the interview he declared that he never plans complete units in detail; "I don't know why; I just don't work that way." Mr. Gordon said that he likes to begin the year with a brief list of literature and skills he plans to teach. His actual unit of planning, however, is the school day. In contrast to Ms. Grover's class, Mr. Gordon's is daily interrupted by intercom announcements, messengers, and students absent for career presentations; often it is shortened for special events. Partly in response to these interruptions, Mr. Gordon reported that he always plans for a particular class the morning before. At that point he has time to check the school schedule, and can allow for interruptions, special events, or special schedules.

Mr. Gordon uses the same pattern for structuring most of his classes, a tactic which minimizes the daily planning he has to do and which makes his routines more predictable for the students. He always includes a reading activity, a writing activity, and a discussion activity, generally breaking the period into at least three different activity segments. Although he said that he often tries to relate writing and discussion to the literature being read, this is not always the case. Rather than working on a unit with a single focus, he typically coordinates a variety of activities concurrently, so that, in a single class period, students might read and discuss a work of literature as well as continue work on other language skills sequences for ten or fifteen minutes of the period. These sequences might include sentence combining exercises, vocabulary exercises (including word roots and homophones), punctuation activities, and so on.

His last minute choice of activities might be influenced by scheduling constraints, potential student absences, or his own level of energy. Choice of content depends on the skills or curriculum sequences currently in progress and Mr. Gordon's concern for variety and balance among them. Recent events at the

school might provide the content for some activities. For example, a newly enacted detention policy became the basis for brainstorming and writing a "pro or con" paper on whether the policy should be changed. Mr. Gordon said that he is perfectly comfortable with changing whatever plans he might make in the morning to accommodate unforeseen circumstances, unexpected reactions that the students might have, students' lack of preparation or lack of understanding of a concept he is trying to explain in the literature. The types of changes that are acceptable include: taking more time on discussion, or doing an alternate and related activity (e.g. brainstorming characters' motives when students were experiencing difficulty discussing the meaning of a section of literature). Mr. Gordon said that he always has alternative courses of action ready if one activity seems to be going poorly.

The only materials he needs to prepare in advance are overhead transparencies or dittos with homework assignments on them (e.g. sentence combining exercises). These vary in content and are prepared during his conference period. He said that in preparing for lessons he might think out in some detail which activities the students are going to do, or he might go into class with nothing more specific than a general objective and know that he is going to have his students do some reading, some writing, and some discussing. He gave an example of such an objective: "students will understand the human relationships in this section of The Miracle Worker". He said that, when he develops more specific plans ahead of time, they are often built around such an objective. Ideas for his lessons come from several other sources, including fellow teachers, professional books and journals, and even student teachers. He usually adapts these materials to his unique classroom structure and activity sequences.

Case Study Portraits: Discussion

Ms. Grover and Mr. Gordon represent the greatest contrast in planning processes, and they seem to correspond to the Comprehensive and Incremental planning styles identified by Clark and Yinger (1980). Although these two designations of styles of planning are useful for characterizing some of the global differences in the two approaches, more subtle contrasts in procedure are also important to identify. Both teachers appear to make use of goals to guide their choice of instructional activities; both appear to take student interests into account, and both consider instructional alternatives. They differ considerably in their management of these factors.

The style of planning used by the teachers did not significantly interact with the types of of assignments the teachers gave, the kinds of events that would influence the teacher to change plans, or the teacher's stated goals. For instance, both comprehensive and incremental planners reported that slow student progress was the primary reason for changing plans (Table 35), both reported that the type of change most frequently allowed was to slow down and take more time with an assignment (Table 36), and both reported that the one aspect of a writing assignment which required the most frequent primary focus in their planning of writing assignments was the content related to the writing assignment or the writing topic (Table 37).

Planning appears to be a more complex process than is represented by differences of planning style. The key to planning for both comprehensive and incremental planners may be the images that teachers have of how good teachers work. Grover consistently referred to good teaching as getting the most "mileage" out of the class period, and Gordon referred to his ideal of a great teacher being one who kept the class active and alive.

C. RESPONDING TO ASSIGNMENTS

We have analyzed response to assignments in the Lesson along three dimensions: (1) the students' estimates of the problems they expected to encounter in assignments before they had written the assignments, (2) the methods of response reported by both local and national teachers, both the form of the response and emphasis of the response on mechanics or content, and (3) teacher and student estimates of writing quality and primary problems in a set of papers.

STUDENT ESTIMATES OF ASSIGNMENT PROBLEMS

The first question was analyzed by asking students in an interview to identify the problems they would have with two different sets of assignments. In the first set, students were given one of three different hypothetical assignments and asked to answer the following question: "What problems might you have with this assignment?" These hypothetical assignments were alternated to diminish the possibility of students' knowing about the assignment before the interview and to provide a mix of different kinds of assignment requiring attention to audience.

Hypothetical Assignments

Assignment Number One

Write one page on a person whom you admire.

Assignment Number Two

Pretend you have just written this to a friend:

> Dear Steve,
>
> Hi. I haven't written in a long time. Hope you weren't waiting by the mailbox (ha ha). Things here are pretty much the same--you know, the street and all and that old buzzard on the corner still hasn't fixed the windows under the "Drink 7-Up" sign. So kids are still cutting themselves on the broken glass on the sidewalk. Like yesterday it happened twice. It really pisses me off. I mean that guy's owned the grocery store for a really long time and takes our money fast enough when we go in and buy stuff but still he lets kids get cut up just because of that dumb window. Hey--instead of wasting my time writing this to <u>you</u> I should be writing to the Better Business Bureau or something. Oh well. Oh, remember the babe in my algebra class? Well her brother's one of the kids that got cut yesterday. Him and some new guy who lives around the corner. Lots of OK kids are getting hurt and this old turkey won't lay out any bread to have his window fixed. Like he's not responsible. Really burns me up.
>
> Want to come up next weekend? Maybe we can get some guys together and think up some ways to get the jerk to fix his window. What say?
>
> Mark

Take the letter above and rewrite it for your school newspaper.

Assignment Number Three

> When five or six years old, my mother announced that she was taking me to our family doctor for a vaccination. I think I was in the first grade at the time and my teacher was Mr. Harris. <u>Vaccination</u> was a mysterious

> word to me. I was somewhat fearful of what was going to happen. Mother explained to me how I couldn't get a disease because of the vaccination. We entered the doctor's private office. The doctor rolled up my sleeve and picked up a very large safety pin about four inches long. Worried by the sight of this enormous pin, I asked the doctor nervously what it was for. He replied with a laugh, "That it was to pin my mouth shut so I wouldn't yell." For an instant I believed him. And almost fainted from terror. When he used it to pin up my sleeve, I was greatly relieved. I didn't know what the pin was for, and he should of told me.

Your teacher has asked you to revise the assignment above so that it can be placed on the bulletin board. What changes would you make?

Actual Assignments

The second set of assignments were actual lessons in the classroom. The observer-researcher selected a lesson which had been observed and then the next day or two interviewed available case study students about the kinds of problems they had with the actual assignments. Eighty-four of the 117 case study students were interviewed. The 19 actual assignments were:

1. Describe someone you know (without using their name) by personality traits rather than physical description (Ellis).

2. Describe a special moment in your life (Newman).

3. Make a map or bubble of your ten-year-old self (Gordon).

4. Write an informal introduction of yourself (Hayward).

5. Write about a nose or noses, using any form you wish (Clay).

6. Write a job application letter (Orozco).

7. Write a job application letter in such a way that you would not get the job (Merrill).

8. Composition and sentence exercise (Siguieros).

9. Write an essay (Siguieros).

10. Write an essay analyzing a poem (Grover).

11. Write an essay analyzing the work of a single author (Sanders).

12. Write a paragraph of argument (Hopkins).

13. Write a paragraph of contrast (Hopkins).

14. Write a term paper (Grover).

15. Write the same incident as if you were telling it to three different audiences--friend, authority figure, and newspaper (Gordon).

16. Newspaper article assignment (O'Neil).

17. Sports preview for senior edition of newspaper (O'Neil).

18. Write a letter of advice to incoming sophomores (Barnes).

19. Write a letter to a friend (Woodward).

Coding the Problems Students Had with Assignments

These two sets of assignments one hypothetical set and another actual set varying from class to class, provided data for examining the problems students might have in assignments. Using the responses of the students, we grouped the problems into the following categories of responses:

A. Inventing content and beginnings.

Examples

"finding someone to write about" "starting it off" "hard to think of details to add"

B. Problems with organization, revision, form, and clarity

Examples:

"Putting ideas in place in the correct order" "thinking how I'd want to change it" "making it smooth and making everything fit together"

C. Mechanics, including spelling, word usage, vocabulary, punctuation, and grammar

D. Personal reasons connected with problems of fulfilling the assignment.

Examples:

"It's hard to express feelings on paper" "tell the truth without lying" "not being too personal but making it interesting"

E. None, no problems in fulfilling the requirements of the assignment.

Discussion

The largest percentage of students to find difficulties in any category among all three hypothetical assignments was the 49.3 percent (of the 64 students) who stated they would have problems inventing content and/or beginning for assignment No. 1, which asked students to write a page about a person whom they admired (see Table 38). "Hard to think of someone," "starting it," "thinking about why you are going to write about that person," were among the comments. 42 percent of students--the next highest percentage in any category of any of the three assignments--said that, on this assignment, they would have problems with mechanics: vocabulary, spelling, handwriting, and grammar. Few students--11 or 15.9 percent--indicated they would have "no problems" on this assignment. However, 28% said they would have problems with assignment 2, and 24% said they would have problems with assignment 3.

Assignment No. 2--to rewrite a personal letter into newspaper form--generated most of its problems (40.3 percent) in the areas of organization, revision, and form. Some of the problems students saw with the assignment were, "getting it all together in a well put form," "changing content around," and "trying to use this person's views without using his language." Compared with assignments No. 1 and No. 3, more students (19 or 28.4 percent) stated that they would have no problems completing the assignment.

Assignment No. 3, in which students were asked to consider revision of a previous piece of writing in order to improve it, with the revised version to appear on a bulletin board, generated 39.7 percent of problems in the mechanics category; followed by 32.8 percent in the area of organization and revision. 24.1 percent of the students indicated that they would have no problems with this assignment.

The results on the hypothetical assignments show that when students are asked to compose their own

experiences, the first major problem is invention ("getting started") and the second major problem is mechanics. The same pattern continues in the student response to the 19 actual assignments, all of which ask students to compose original material, not just revise a given piece as in hypothetical assignments No. 1 and No. 2.

In the actual assignments, Table 39 shows that more students at the highest levels on the proficiency exam believe they will have problems. About one-fourth of the highest level writers versus one-third or more of the other writers believed that they would have no problems. Inventing content and beginnings tends to be a major problem; mechanics and organization appeared equally difficult. The lowest proficiency group named problems with organization more often than mechanics, while the high group put mechanics ahead of organization. This latter pattern reflects the primary need of low proficiency writers for fluency and focus, not form (Myers, 1982). Students' responses to the hypothetical assignments indicated some different patterns of problems.

In the two hypothetical assignments which provided texts for revision, some students identified the problem of inventing new beginnings (19.4 percent for assignment two and 22.4 percent for assignment three), but most students who had a problem named aspects of either organization (40.3 percent for assignment two) or mechanics (39.7 for assignment three).

TEACHER AND STUDENT EVALUATIONS AND COMMENT

The rankings and comments of teachers and students on papers at different levels of competency show the degree to which students and teachers share a common understanding of competency standards in the writing program. The 117 case study students, the 14 local teachers and the 106 teachers in the national sample ranked six papers from the district proficiency exam on a scale of 1 (lowest) to 6 (highest). In addition, local teachers were asked to comment on each of the six papers, as if they were writing comments to students in their rooms. What follows are the rankings and comments on papers at the lowest level, the middle level, and the highest level.

Ranking and Commenting on the Bottom Paper (Proficiency Level 1 see next page).

Students and teachers agreed in their rankings that the paper on the next page was a bottom paper:

No. 21

WRITING SAMPLE

Trogian produces
Rdal
Oakland, Ca. 94606

I was in impression Buy my Mother she is a good woman and love with bee it is just me and my mother my father not live with us me and my mother go a lot of place together she ate Involve with my sport and help me she make shen I go to a good school and she make shen I take good care of my body and I have and impression on my Mother Becuse she is a great Mother.
Ms Brooks

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Paper #21 (Low)

Rankings

Level	Students		Local Teachers		Nat'l Teachers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
One	98	86.0	12	86.7	97	91.5
Two	9	7.9	2	14.3	8	7.5
Three	4	3.5	0	0	1	0.9
Four	2	1.8	0	0	0	0
Five	1	0.9	0	0	0	0
Six	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	114		14		106	

Students reacted strongly to the difficulties of reading this paper, using such adjectives as "outrageous," "depressing," "tragic," and "terrible" to describe it. Several students commented, "This student needs help." The 114 case study students, in response to "Now give your reasons for choosing the worst (1) paper," offered 277 reasons, an average of 2.8 per student.

The bottom paper, #21, generated more reasons for choice as worst than any other worst or best paper--277 reasons, 158 of them focusing on mechanics, 43 on organization, and 76 relating to qualitative judgments. In mechanics, spelling evoked 44 reasons, punctuation 56, sentence structure 28, and lack of clarity 38.

Teachers, too, reacted strongly to this paper. "Student lacks a basic concept of language," was one teacher's comment. Like the students, teachers commented, "this student really needs a lot of help," or, "These students need all the help they can get." When asked to indicate questions teachers might ask of this student in an individual conference one teacher responded, "There's no point in questions here." On the whole teacher comments, again like those of students, fell primarily into the areas of mechanics and organization; six of the thirteen teachers said they would ask the student to revise or rewrite the paper.

The teacher who stated that this writer lacked a "basic concept of language" raised, in discussion, the question of whether or not high school students as deficient in skills as this one could be taught within present high school classrooms. Other teachers

responded vehemently that, indeed, such students "could learn," but "you are working against the odds. What other teachers have done, you have to undo."

Teachers agreed that it was necessary to change attitudes, to vary methods, to "disguise the lesson so you don't come out with the same old lesson of a noun is a person, place, or thing, but you have to find new ways...of approaching...so you don't turn them off" (quote from bilingual teacher).

Teachers discussed approaches to use with students at this skill level. Teachers pointed out the importance of working with students on sentences. "Since this is one long sentence I would suggest that in his journal we try to concentrate simply on shortening the sentences," or, another teacher commented, "on making sentences with periods and capital letters, with a form where things begin and end."

"I would have him write these not as separate sentences," another teacher said, "so they (sic) saw them as separate thoughts, that's where I would start on a basic level." Teachers discussed the importance of eliciting more detail from the student by using such techniques as brainstorming and mapping or by listing details prior to writing.

This paper, typical of the writing problems of students who may be fluent orally but who lose fluency when they begin to write, led one teacher to comment:

> Delving into this paper...as though it's a code...I think he's saying "I'm impressed by my mother, she is a great woman. I live with her and it's just the two of us." I'm paraphrasing. "Just the two of us. My father doesn't live with us. My mother and I go a lot of placed together. She gets involved in my sports, and helps me. She makes sure that I got to a good school, and she makes sure that I take care of myself. And I am impressed by my mother, because she is a great mother." And so I would say, I think that's what you're trying to say so let's write it down.

This teacher said he would ask the student if he were willing to write a composition about his father since the teacher felt that the student would be capable of elaboration on the phrase "my father not live with us," and that such an assignment would be a step in the process of increasing fluency.

Most teacher recommendations for best ways to work with this and similar students focused on the overwhelming need for transition steps--reading aloud, talking to the teacher, sharing with other students--to move the student from oral to written expression and to get more of the oral on paper.

> "I think that if he (student) were talking he could say this much better and he would pause at certain points and you could show him that these were the separate ideas, but he would not know, really, what was wrong there because it's all going on in his mind, all running together. He's not thinking about the printed page."

Another comment on a paper ranked next to the bottom elicited the following comment identifying fluency as the primary need of bottom writers:

> This student and the first students...there's a problem of fluency here...giving a lot of writing assignments, daily writing assignments, working on fluency rather than first trying to cope with a lot of individual things...the old idea of practice tends to make you better.

Ranking and Commenting on the Middle Paper (Proficiency Level 3, see next page)

Paper #51 (Middle) (see paper next page)

Level	Students		Local Teachers		Nat'l Teachers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
One	0	0	0	0	1	0.9
Two	10	8.8	0	0	0	0
Three	30	26.3	8	57.1	45	42.5
Four	49	43.0	4	28.6	48	45.3
Five	18	15.8	2	14.3	10	9.4
Six	7	6.1	0	0	2	1.9
TOTAL	114		14		106	

Both students and teachers tended to agree that this paper should have a middle score. However, the students tended to give this paper a ranking of four, and local teachers tended to give this paper a ranking

No. 51

WRITING SAMPLE

Hi there! My friend's name is [redacted]. She was born in Hong Kong. She was sixteen years old. This year she was in 10th grade. She was a real smart girl. And she had a big family.

In that time I was very happy living with Linda. She was very friendly and industrious, honest..... Even though she was my real good friend. When I was in Hong Kong I always went to school with Linda. We are the same grade. After school she always came to my home to study and helped me. On the weekend we went to the restaurant and went to the theater. We had fun every day.

After that I was very happy. When I came to the U.S. Linda gave me a beautiful jacket for me, and say good-bye. Since she was my good friend I always send the letters to her. And she sent me a letter that she was very bored. Time passed very quickly. I hope I'll go back to Hong Kong and have fun with Linda again. I've enjoyed working with my real good friend in Hong Kong.

It was a wonderful day.

Love

[redacted]

Feb 15, 1979

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of three. Three of the seven students who called this middle paper the best were bilingual students.

In discussing how best to work with students such as the writer of this paper, two teachers pointed out what they would not do. A bilingual (Spanish) teacher commented:

> I think the most important thing is...the emphasis on getting their thoughts on paper...If you start obstructing them or preventing them with the punctuation and the organization they will be turned back and feel "I'll make too many mistakes with the capitals and periods." on things that are different...I have to know the right time to approach the particular question in a second language correction. It wouldn't be the first thing I'd focus on; I'd start with her thoughts, start with her initiative.

"I think," one teacher said, "this is a paper I wouldn't grade. It's more for fluency. We have a lot of students who write like this, international students. And it is a special problem, very special problem."

In discussing the overall confusing effect of the paper, teachers focused especially on the need for improving the opening paragraph.

> I think an opening paragraph here might have really helped: "I really miss my home, I miss my home and I particularly miss my friend, Linda Yee." See, boom, that gives the focus. And then she could go on.

And, in considering strategies of revision and rewriting, one teacher said:

> It's one on one...some students rewrite more than others. It's important that they mimic standard English...I say this is going to be your modal...they might have two or three editions and you save each one. I have them read out loud...to internalize the standard, the pattern and the rhythm...we talk about hearing the differences. [I give them at least a couple of days because I don't want them to just go through and put the periods because sometimes there's some content that has to be revised and I want them to think about it. I tell them, make it worthy now...I'd rather know that you took a little

time.

Suggestions for encouraging rewriting included:

> Sometimes the rewrite is considered part of the assignment. I usually go on a point system so that maybe there will be a 30-point essay. 20 points maximum for the original, 10 for the rewrite...

And, this suggestion:

> What I'll do is I'll tell them I'll take the best grade...so they work really hard and they'll try to get that A...one way or another and then I'll throw the C's and the D's and the B's out...

Rankings and Comments for the Top Paper (Proficiency Level 6, see next page)

Paper #41 (High) (see paper next page)

Rankings

Level	Students		Local Teachers		Nat'l Teachers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
One	2	1.8	0	0	0	0
Two	3	2.6	0	0	1	0.9
Three	7	6.1	0	0	3	2.8
Four	12	10.5	1	7.1	3	2.8
Five	45	39.5	2	14.3	25	23.6
Six	45	39.5	11	78.6	74	69.8
TOTAL	114		14		106	

Local and national teachers tended to agree on the top paper, but students were less certain, only 39.5 percent giving the top paper a top score. 114 case study students, in response to the written request "Please write your reasons for choosing the best (6) paper below," listed a total of 295 reasons, an average of 2.5 per student. One hundred reasons had to do with mechanics, 73 with organization, and 116 were assessments of the quality of the writing or the paper's content.

Teachers were positive about his paper, commenting on "excellent organization," "flow of ideas," "touching remembrance." Two teachers, noting that this paper was not error-free, recommended prose reading to eliminate

No. 41

WRITING SAMPLE

The person in my life who made a great impression on me was a friendly, stronghanded man. Mr Engstrom, who lived next door to me. He was a man, rather old, about 85 or so. He was a grandfather figure to me. I called him Grandpa Engstrom.

As a child of about 7 years, I remember running over to visit him everyday after school. We used to sit by the fire sipping hot cocoa and he'd tell me all kinds of stories about his past. One story he told me touched me so much, I shall never forget it as long as I live.

When he was 40 years old he was by himself in a cabin out in a forest and was accidently shot in the arm by a rifle. In this tragic accident his arm was half way blown off, but he didn't panic, he forced himself to get to a Train. He had to take the train to the nearest docter who was about 10 hours away.

The docter said his arm was to be amputated or he may die Grandpa Engstrom refused! He survived the surgery The strong willed man he was.

Grandpa Engstrom is dead now but I still look over in his old vegtible garden, which is now just weeds and I can see him workin away.

79-A

spelling mistakes and "comma splices." "He's the kind (of student)," one teacher said, "you would say 'Do you like this paper?' and he would really tell you."

45 students (39.5 percent) chose this paper "best;" an equal number gave it a 5 ranking. Twelve students ranked it 4, 7 gave it a 3, 3 ranked it 2, and 2 gave it a 1. The even division at the top ranking levels suggests the difficulty students had in assessing this more complex piece of work.

The 45 students gave a total of 110 reasons for ranking this paper top--2.4 reasons per student. Students specified more qualitative reasons than they did mechanical or organizational reasons for choosing this paper; in papers at the other ranking levels reasons for choice on the basis of mechanics dominated. "Well written," "goes into depth," and "seems so real" were among the comments.

> The reason why I chose this paper was because it really touched my heart, it gave a beginning, a middle and ending. The story was very well put together. The spelling was not all that hot but I got his idea." (case study student #112).

And, another student comment:

> I liked this description of "Grandpa" Engstrom best because it is clear, concentrates on how his strong will made in impression on him, and contains concrete imagery. I particularly like the last sentence because it reveals that Grandpa Engstrom is still etched in the writer's mind. (Case study #69).

Students' written comments on reasons for choosing best and worst papers often exhibited the excellent qualities of the two quoted above--specific, accurate, concise, and sensitive. Without identification it would in many cases be difficult to tell whether the comments originated with students or teachers, leading one to conclude that, in their comments on of what qualities make good writing, students and teachers are very close to one another. However, as noted above, in rankings of top papers, there tended to be less agreement (see Tables 39 and 40).

The 14 local teachers were asked to read the six anchor papers (Figures 3-8) and to put typical responses on the papers. Teacher responses were grouped into five categories:

Skills

This category covers syntax, usage, and all forms of mechanics. Comments on sentence structure, for example, have been grouped here; spelling, punctuation, verb agreement, and word choice are other examples of skills topics.

Procedure

Teachers, in marking anchor papers, often suggested to students a course of action students might follow in order to improve the paper. If the action suggested involved student initiative beyond simply correcting or revising ("see me after class to talk about your paper," for example) the remarks have been included in this category. Here are also grouped teacher statements about procedure they would follow in relation to the piece of writing--such comments as "I wouldn't grade it" or "I would ask the student to read the paper aloud to me."

Rhetoric

This category involves questions of audience and distance--close, far--form the reader; it includes genre, since genre--poem, short story, a specific essay form--usually determines and influences audience.

Ideas

These remarks comment on fluency or ideas ("good idea," "where is your mother now?") and encourage the student generally to say more about the subject.

Organization

These remarks refer to beginnings ("topic sentence"), endings, transitions, and "specifics to illustrate your generalities."

The 242 teacher comments were distributed as follows:

Teacher Comments by Paper

Paper Rank Bottom-Top	Paper No.	Rhetoric	Ideas	Skills	Procedure	Organization	Total
1	21	3	8	17	12	4	44
2	31	1	19	13	3	8	44
3	51	6	17	12	7	7	49
4	61	1	15	3	4	9	32
5	71	0	17	2	3	14	36
6	41	0	12	7	5	13	37
	TOTAL	11	88	64	34	55	242

The 14 teachers also marked 228 "errors" on the six papers (see Appendix I); 98 of them focused on punctuation, 41 on editing ("awkward" and strikeouts), and 33 on spelling. The overall pattern of teacher responses on student papers shows an increasing emphasis on organization in the top papers, more rhetorical comments on middle papers, more procedural strategies ("See me later") for bottom papers, and a stress on ideas and fluency throughout.

METHODS OF TEACHER RESPONSE TO PAPERS

In addition to the rankings and evaluations on the anchor papers, case study students were asked to indicate on the questionnaire how teachers respond to writing (see Table 42).

Students report that correcting usage/mechanics errors, assignment of letter grades or points, writing comments about content, writing comments on organization, and writing comments on writing style were all feedback practices used "sometimes" or more often by General, Advanced, Composition, and Journalism course teachers, with the highest frequency of their occurrence reported by students in Advanced classes.

Students in Advanced, Composition, and Journalism classes also indicated that their teachers "sometimes" read student papers to the class. In addition to these practices, Journalism students reported that their teacher "sometimes" held teacher-student writing conferences and "often" posted or published their papers. These two practices received relatively low frequency ratings by all other class types.

Students in Remedial classes reported that correcting usage and/or mechanics errors was the most frequently used teacher response practice, followed by the assigning of letter grades or points and writing comments on writing style. These students indicate that their teachers write comments about content less often than teachers from other class types.

Students in Bilingual classes reported that their teachers respond to their writing assignments by assigning letter grades or points, correcting usage and/or mechanics errors, and writing comments about content. Other feedback responses received less than "sometimes" ratings by these students.

Teachers on the national and local questionnaires reported use of a variety of techniques to stimulate revision and to respond to student writing. Teachers in both groups reported that teacher feedback was used

more frequently than student feedback and that comments on grammar were more frequent than comments on content (Table 45).

For low skills students the most frequently made response was a letter grade and marking of mechanics. Strategies which might provide practice in fluency (e.g., writing conferences or reading papers aloud) are used less often. Comments on logic, style and content are made least frequently for low ability students and most frequently by teachers of advanced level students (Table 43).

D. ESTABLISHING ROUTINES

The teacher as instructor, in addition to responding to student papers, planning lessons, and giving assignments, establishes the routines that shape the lessons. The routines are important because they become the student presuppositions about "this class" and enable the teacher, among other things, to move the students efficiently from one part of a lesson to another or from one lesson to another within the same class period. Through various routines used by the teacher, the students come to expect, for example, that when the teacher stands at the front of the room and looks at the class, the class is supposed to be quiet and listen to directions from the teacher on a new segment of class activities.

Teachers reported that the segmenting of the class into several lessons or several parts of the same lesson necessary to give the students a needed variety of focus during the class period. Some teachers call this need for variety a problem of "attention span," and still others call it a problem of "recurrent boredom" or the "grass is always greener syndrome."

In any event, this segmenting of the class was a very important routine and varied from teacher to teacher in frequency and in method. We studied the frequency of segmenting by counting the number of segments on the class summaries prepared by the research assistants on each observation (See Appendix B) In order to study the method of segmenting, we selected observations of three case study teachers who varied in both the frequency and method of their segmenting practices and who used a variety of writing assignments in the given assignments (see Table 25).

These selected observations were coded for different methods of opening and closing segments. The various openers and closers were collected from the observations notes and were grouped into verbal and

non-verbal and then grouped into sub-categories under the two main categories. Grouping and re-grouping continued until we agreed on the group label for the 49 non-verbal openers and closers and 144 verbal openers and closers.

FREQUENCY OF SEGMENTING

The total number of segments was counted in twelve classes. (Two classes, Barnes and O'Neil, were dropped because of special organizational patterns in these classes. O'Neil, for instance, had a Journalism class, and the instructor did not segment the class.) Of the 262 class observations in the twelve classes (see Table 17), class segments could not be identified.

In the remaining 246 observations of twelve classes, the average number of segments in each class was 2.1 (see Table 45). The largest number of segments occurred in Gordon's ninth grade class (3.4 per class period), Orozco and Siguieros in bilingual classes had the second largest numbers (2.9 and 2.8 respectively), and Hopkins and Woodward had the third largest numbers (2.6, 2.6 respectively). The fourth group had 2.3 (Newman), and 1.9 (Ellis), the fifth 1.9 (Grover), the sixth 1.4 (Sanders), 1.4 (Merrill) and 1.4 (Clay), and the lowest group 1.3 (Hayward).

In the coding of segments, segments started when the teacher made some move to announce that class was beginning. The segment changes were marked when the students changed activities (from discussing to writing), changed the group size of an activity (from class discussion to small group discussion) or changed content (from reading a grammar book to reading a short story). In the typical class, after the bell to begin the class period, there is a beginning period of students going to their seats and teachers checking roll, gathering materials, or talking to students. This period was not counted as a separate segment in the data. In addition, fire drills and other types of interruptions of the class activities were counted as interruptions, not new segments. Interruptions are discussed in the next chapter.

METHODS OF SEGMENTING

The case study classes of Gordon, Grover, and Siguieros were selected for a close examination of the methods the teachers used in segementing their classes. The segments of the three classes were identified in the notes and summaries (see Table 45), and the teacher moves to open and close each segment were coded into two groups, non-verbal and verbal. These three

teachers were selected because they exhibited different tendencies in the way they segmented their classes:

Segmentation Profiles for Teachers

Typically Occurring Variables In Segmentation Patterns	Grover	Siguieros	Gordon
Number of Segments in Class Period	2	3	3 or more
Tasks of Different Segments Related in Content	Yes	No	No
Tasks Overlap (students working on different tasks at same time)	No	Yes	Yes
Class Opener as Separate Segment	No	No	Yes
Set tasks for specific days of the week	No	No	Yes
Tasks for Homework Worked on in Class	No	Yes	Yes
Tasks from Previous Classes Worked on In Class	No	Yes	Yes

In Ms. Grover's class, when there was more than one segment in the class, the task of the second segment usually was related in content to the task of the first segment. For example, in segment one the students might write a paragraph as a small group task and in segment two, read the paragraphs to the whole class. The closing of one segment, then, might refer to a task in the next segment.

Unlike Ms. Grover's class, where there were usually only two segments, in Mr. Siguieros's class there were typically three segments. Also, unlike Ms. Grover's class, the tasks of the segments were often unrelated to each other. The students might take and grade a quiz, for example, and then complete a dictation exercise. There were more openers and closers in Mr. Siguieros's class than in Ms. Grover's, therefore, because there were more segments. Their references were often to different contents because the tasks of the segments may be unrelated.

Mr. Gordon quite often had several tasks that were continued from another time. Each task would be unrelated to the next, all would have been worked on previously and none were necessarily expected to be completed within the specific class period. For example, students finished a homework assignment, then practiced sentence combining with sentences from the day before, and then read a newspaper article which was begun in a previous period. The tasks of adjacent segments and

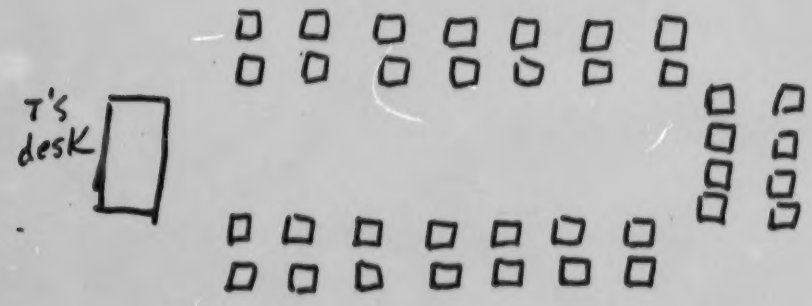
the references to them by openers or closers were distinct from each other, but both may be "old" information. Unlike the other two teachers, Mr. Gordon often had a first segment for official class opening. A class opening included such things as personal opinions unrelated to the day's activities, a non-specific talk about future activities, or a discussion of a general topic like good writing.

NON-VERBAL MOVES

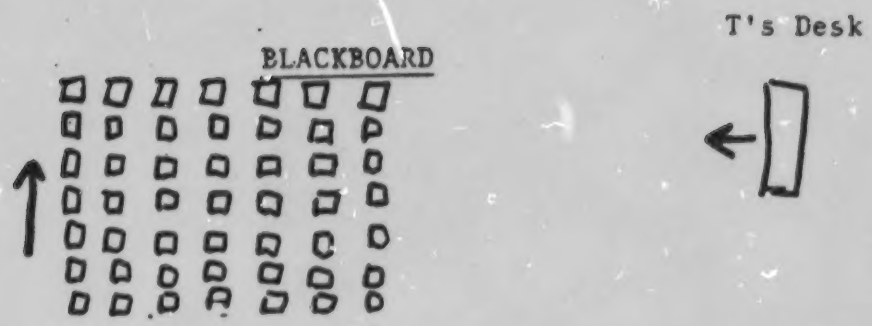
The bell was not counted as a non-verbal opener or closer. The bell at the beginning or ending of class was a significant non-verbal opener or closer for some segments of some classes, but these classes always had teacher moves which marked the opening, and sometimes had teacher moves which marked the closing. Four non-verbal openers and closers were counted: (1) shift in teacher position, used by all teachers as both an opener and a closer; (3) distribution of materials, used by Siguieros and Gordon as both an opener and closer and used by Ms. Grover only as an opener; (3) manipulation of equipment, used only by Gordon as both an opener and closer; and (4) writing on the board, used by Gordon and Siguieros as an opener and closer.

Table 46 shows the number of different non-verbal openers and closers used by the three teachers. The way non-verbal openers and closers were used appears to be dictated to some degree by each teacher's room arrangement:

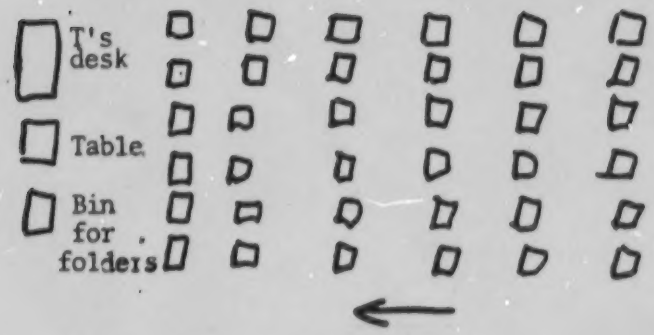
Ms. Grover's Classroom Layout



Mr. Siguieros's Classroom Layout



Mr. Gordon's Classroom Layout



This layout allowed Ms. Grover to be seen by all the students in the class and allows her to use the classroom as a stage. She was able to change her position in the classroom and the students immediately focus their attention on her. For example, she would move from being seated behind her desk to standing in front of it, and, as all the students were seated in such a way as to easily see her move, this became established as a signal that an opener or closer was about to be uttered.

The students remained seated at their desks throughout the class period, either working individually or in small groups of four or five other students seated around them. Students don't typically chat with one another. Ms. Grover generally either sat behind her desk or stood in front of it (directly in front or three or four feet in front).

The openers and closers in Ms. Grover's class,

then, were uttered to a quiet, seated and relatively immobile audience. The teacher could change her position relative to the audience at will, but usually restricted her movements to a small part of the classroom.

In contrast with Ms. Grover, for whom a small change in her position relative to the students could attract their attention (both because of the classroom layout and because of the small amount of movement of the students around the classroom), both Mr. Siguieros and Mr. Gordon maintained classrooms in which a change in their position relative to their students was much less clearly marked as segment shifters. In their rooms, the student desks were arranged in rows, facing the blackboards. Both Mr. Siguieros and Mr. Gordon used the act of writing on the board to get the students' attention more frequently than Ms. Grover. However, there were some significant differences between Mr. Siguieros's use of his classroom and Mr. Gordon's use of his. In layout, there were more students in Mr. Gordon's class, and more equipment and objects (tables, for instance). Also, Mr. Gordon's class contained less square footage than Mr. Siguieros's.

Mr. Siguieros typically remained in a position relative to the class throughout a segment, altered his position for the next segment, and maintained the altered position throughout the second segment. As there were more segments in his class than there were in Ms. Grover's, (see below) the impression was that he moved much more. His openers and closers, using changes in position relative to the students, are less consistent than Ms. Grover's. Ms. Grover will typically move from behind her desk to in front of her desk, as a signal, but Mr. Siguieros moved from the front of the room to his desk, or from his desk to the front of the room, or from circulating among the students to the front of the room, or any one of several other shifts as an opening or closing of a segment.

Mr. Gordon, like Mr. Siguieros, changed his position relative to the students frequently. However, in his much more crowded classroom, the association of a particular position with the openers and closers of the segment was much less clear. It appeared to be simply more difficult in his classroom for all the students to see him because he did not have a lot of room in which to establish an unambivalent spatial relationship between himself and the students. Instead, (in addition to using intonation as an attention-shifter) he frequently manipulates the objects in the room to signal openers and closers. Two examples would be moving the overhead projector or picking up the chalk as a preliminary to using the blackboard. Neither Mr.

Siguieros nor Ms. Grover used the objects in their rooms in this frequent way.

There was more student movement in both Mr. Siguieros's and Mr. Gordon's class than in Ms. Grover's. In Mr. Siguieros's class, though, the movement appeared to be more frequently less focused on the task. Students, for example, sometimes drifted around the room and sat down to talk with their friends. The type of movement in Mr. Siguieros's class influences his openers and closers. He frequently called the students' attention to the task, and to the fact that the students should remember that there was a task to which they should attend.

In Mr. Gordon's class, much of the student movement seemed to be task-related. Students were often getting pencils or handing out supplies, for example. Also, most of the students' movement in Mr. Gordon's class occurred after an opener, so it was not so often necessary for Mr. Gordon to remind the students that a task was going to be given. However, Mr. Gordon did sometimes wait for students to quiet down before beginning a segment.

VERBAL MOVES

The verbal moves of the three teachers to open or close a segment were coded in terms of seven speech acts: (1) Request, a form of command with two subcategories, imperative and declarative, (2) informative, an opinion or idea; (3) expressive, a personalized comment, often negative or positive; (4) a joke; (5) a formula utterance, repeated frequently by the teacher; (6) performative, stating what the techer intends to do or is doing; and (7) a question. Tables 47 and 48 define each category and give examples from the three teachers.

The categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Several utterances could have been placed in more than one category. It was decided to assign utterances to only one category on the basis of what seemed to be its most significant variables. Examples of utterances which might have been assigned to more than one category are some jokes, performatives, and imperatives.

"Is that your tie?" is both a question and a joke. It was assigned to the latter category because the utterance was intended to be humorous. A note in the field notes indicated a joke or that the students responded to the utterance with laughter. "I know you don't practice English enough..." is both an opinion,

an informative, and as a negative comment about the students' lack of practice, it is an expressive. However, the teacher's feelings about the students' actions are not made explicit in the utterance. It was therefore categorized as an informative. The performatives, for example, "I'm going to rearrange seats" and "I will dictate five sentences," were all, in a sense, informatives. Explicit statements of intent by teachers, however, were quite common and it seemed likely such utterances were not intended to give information so much as to signal to the class that the teacher was about to do something, i.e., to perform an action.

Some of the utterances in other categories of speech events seemed to be sub-categories of other openers in the same way that performatives was a subcategory of informatives. First, not all of the questions were intended to solicit information. Rather, they were requests in the form of a question. "Would you read for us, Carmella?" for example, could be rephrased "Read for us," and "Is everyone finished?" might be "finish now." Second, many of the formulas could also be imperatives, such as "have a nice day." However, the intonational character of these utterances seemed to identify them as formulas.

It was found that three speech events--Imperative, Declarative, and Question--often appeared to be formulaic or in the process of becoming formulaic. For example, "Take out your books," spoken only once in classroom discourse would not be intonationally formulaic. The seventh or eighth time the utterance occurred it seemed to have become formulaic. Questions, particularly rhetorical questions such as "Everybody finished?" and "Everybody ready?" seemed similarly to become formulaic. The distinctions between formulaic character and non-formulaic character in these categories was blurred.

The most frequently occurring openers in Ms. Grover's class were imperatives, while informatives and formulas were both frequent closers. In both Mr. Siguieros's and Mr. Gordon's class, informatives were the most frequent openers and closers. In Mr. Siguieros's class, like Ms. Grover's, imperatives were also often used as openers. Unlike Ms. Grover's use of them, imperatives were also frequently used as closers. In Mr. Gordon's class they were not often used as either openers or closers.

Mr. Siguieros, unlike either Ms. Grover or Mr. Gordon, also frequently used questions as openers and closers, and made more frequent use of performatives than either of the other teachers. Like Ms. Grover,

Mr. Gordon also used formulas, but they occurred as openers rather than closers. Neither formulas nor expressives occurred in Mr. Siguleros's class, though they occurred in the other two classes. Joking or teasing did not occur in Ms. Grover's class but did occur in Mr. Gordon's and Mr. Siguleros's classes.

Several of the examples are interesting. The uses of imperatives and formulas illustrate difference between the teachers. In using imperatives, both Mr. Siguleros and Mr. Gordon typically softened the source of their imperatives with "please," while Ms. Grover typically did not. Ms. Grover said "pass the papers in" where Mr. Gordon said "pass the papers forward, please."

In Ms. Grover's class, formulas were invariably used as class closers and as dismissals, for example, "have a nice day" and "see you Monday." In Mr. Gordon's class, the formulas were often openers and formulaic greetings such as "ladies and gentlemen."

"Cut off at this point" is an interesting use of an imperative by Mr. Gordon because it seemed to include himself as an audience for the command, (i.e., "cut off ourselves at this point"). Mr. Siguleros, while he did not include himself as a referent, does seem to assume the role of speaking for the students in some of his utterances. He said, for example, "I think most of you understand the reasons for capitalization." He did not ask the students whether they understood the reasons.

Several of Mr. Siguleros's and Mr. Gordon's utterances were quite dramatic, using intonation and surprising content to make them more successful as attention-shifters. For example, Mr. Siguleros said, "Today make some <u>creative</u> sentences using three words" and Mr. Gordon exclaimed, "Would you <u>believe</u> that!?" (i.e. believe what happened in the story). An opener which occurred in Mr. Gordon's class calls attention to the fact that the next utterance would be mimed rather than spoken. This utterance is both an unusual type of opener as well as a referent to an untypical type of classroom discourse, "I'm going to be demonstrating in silent language."

Finally, some of the humorous utterances, the jokes and teases, were interesting. In Mr. Siguleros's class, for example, Mr. Siguleros noted that he had not kept the class long after the bell, "one extra minute." The students responded loudly, "Two!!" Mr. Gordon asked, "If I let you run would you learn anything?" (i.e. like Helen Keller in <u>The Miracle Worker</u>)." The

students responded loudly, "No!"

The overall distribution of speech acts in the three classes is shown in Table 49. The majority of the 144 observed speech acts were either imperative requests or informatives. The differences of speech events among teachers often seemed to be the result of class circumstances. Ms. Grover used more imperatives, but her students were twelfth graders, and they seemed to want firm, explicit direction. The students who were interviewed about class patterns often insisted that teachers should be more directive. Mr. Gordon, however, had younger students and more students in the class. The situation seemed to require more jokes to ease tensions. Mr. Gordon also used more formulaic speech acts to open his assignments, and this approach also seemed well suited to the young age (ninth grade) of the students and the larger class size. That is, the formula was more easily grasped by students with less experience in school routines, and it was more easily assimilated by large groups.

In summary, these three teachers opened segments more often than closed them (see Table 50), and this was most often accomplished using imperatives and informatives. In addition, these three teachers monitored time and projected a future task when they were opening and closing segments. Forty-nine (49) of the 144 speech acts, in fact, referred not to the task of the specific segment but to a future task or tasks. As a closing, Ms. Grover, for example, referred to homework which must be done at home and turned in the next day or to the tasks which would occur over the coming week. Many of Gordon's segments were part of other assignments, something to be returned to later. The distribution of future references was 8 (Grover), 19 (Siguieros), and 22 (Gordon). Siguieros and Gordon tended to project time at the beginning of the segment, and Grover tended to project time at the end. From interviews with the three teachers, it appeared that Grover, a comprehensive planner, wanted her twelfth grade students to see school as part of a total plan, such as going to college, and see each day as embedded inside a larger schedule. Gordon, on the other hand, wanted his students to see each part of each day's work as something which could or would be returned to in the future.

The monitoring of time also occurred in the openings and closing. In planning, teachers reported that students not completing the work was the major reason for changing plans, and this checking of how much time was needed took place through questions ("Is everyone finished?") and through comments eliciting student

responses--informatives ("Tomorrow you'll have to work faster"), declaratives ("OK, you have two or three minutes to look over your notes"), imperatives ("Let's hurry along"), and jokes ("Now that everyone is done").

SUMMARY OF THE LESSON

The three primary responsibilities of a writing instructor in inner city secondary schools appeared to be giving assignments, responding to student writing and problems with assignments, and establishing routines which further shape the lessons each day. A primary goal for these teachers was helping students to improve basic skills, and the emphasis was on these skills in the assignments that teachers gave. The teachers also gave many assignments which asked students to just generate ideas (journals and memory writing). The purpose of these assignments appeared to be far less clear to the inner city writing teachers. Certainly students found "getting started" their primary difficulty with an assignment requiring composing, and the students expressed this need to teachers. But the whole notion of invention and "getting started" was far less explicitly stated in the goals that teachers report for their assignments.

There were a number of indicators that teachers varied their assignments to fit the needs of particular students. First, teachers report that they did this. Second, the length of writing time varied. Advanced classes having the shortest Writing Episodes (19.5 minutes) and Composition classes having the longest Writing Episodes (29.1 minutes). The proportion of class time devoted to writing overall was the highest in Remedial (42 percent) and Bilingual (41 percent) classes, where students need a great deal of in-class help from the teacher while writing, and the lowest in the Advanced classes (25 percent), where students could be expected to do more of their own writing without in-class help from the teacher.

The distinction between Comprehensive and Incremental planners did not significantly interact with the teacher's stated goals, the types of assignments given by the teacher, or the kinds of events which would cause teachers to change their plans. All teachers, no matter what their planning style, changed their plans most frequently to meet the needs of students who needed more time with the assignment. At the same time, both Comprehensive and Incremental teachers segmented their classes into different activity structures, usually to solve problems with students who became inattentive if the activity was not

changed.

Thus, teachers at the level of the Lesson appear to be balancing the contradictory demands of keeping the students' attention by segmenting activities, thereby increasing the pace of a given activity, and at the same time meeting the needs of students who need more time by slowing down and not shifting activities. In these Lessons, the questions "Everybody finished?" and "Everybody ready?" became formulaic devices for eliciting responses to gauge what the pace of a Lesson should be.

The response to writing remained a key problem in the teaching of writing. First, there is the paper load that writing teachers have. Second, having students become the responders to the writing of other students was not as simple a proposition as it at first seemed. Writing teachers might not use student response groups very often because such an activity makes segmenting the activities of the class more difficult, one response group finishing before another and another group insisting on more time. Furthermore, the students understand the school's standards for low papers quite well, identifying the bottom paper in the proficiency ranking without difficulty; but they have more uncertainty about top papers. Finally, although the students feel that invention and "getting started" is the critical problem in most writing assignments requiring composing, they do not make process or procedural suggestions about writing they are evaluating. Teachers, however, do make such comments: "I think the most important thing is....the emphasis on getting their thoughts on paper...If you start obstructing them or preventing them with the punctuation and organization, they will be turned back...." Students in order to respond helpfully must, therefore, understand something about the teaching process and development patterns in writing. In no classes observed were there lessons teaching students how to respond to papers written by other students. Student response groups were not a regular feature of instruction in the observed classes.

Table 23

Amount and Type of Writing

Given in Typical Two-Week Period

(Pages)

	NATIONAL				LOCAL			
	No.[a]	Mean[b]	S.D.	Median[c]	No.[a]	Mean[b]	S.D.	Median[c]
Notes on Lectures/ Discussions	54	3.00	3.25	2.00	14	2.29	2.05	1.50
Workbook Exercises	54	1.26	1.74	0.50	14	2.14	2.41	1.50
Short Answers	54	1.91	1.72	1.75	14	3.14	2.98	2.50
Whole Discourse	54	7.03	5.57	5.38	14	4.93	2.70	4.83
Other	15	3.80	2.68	3.13	6	4.00	3.41	2.50
Pages Completed in Class	51	7.06	4.63	6.06	14	6.86	6.08	5.50
Number of Pages of Homework	54	5.09	3.33	4.83	14	4.29	3.32	4.00

[a] Number of teachers responding to item

[b] Mean number of pages (1 page = one-half page or more of writing on an 8½" X 11" sheet)

[c] Median number of pages (1 page = one-half page or more of writing on an 8½" X 11" sheet)

Table 24

Instructional Activities: Prewriting

NATIONAL

	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Almost Always (5)		Not Appl. (6)			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	N	Mean	SD	Total[a] n
Writing	—	—	7.5	4	20.8	11	22.6	12	49.1	26	1	4.13	1.00	53
Talking	--	—	7.4	4	16.7	9	33.3	18	42.6	23	--	4.11	0.95	54
Reading	1.9	1	3.7	2	20.4	11	33.3	18	40.7	22	--	4.07	0.97	54
Other	—	—	7.1	1	7.1	1	14.3	2	71.4	10	1	4.50	0.94	14

LOCAL

	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Almost Always (5)		No. Appl (6)			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	N	Mean	SD	Total[a] n
Writing	--	--	35.7	5	7.1	1	28.6	4	28.6	4	--	3.50	1.29	14
Talking	7.7	1	7.7	1	23.1	3	15.4	2	46.2	6	1	3.85	1.35	13
Reading	--	—	7.1	1	14.3	2	50.0	7	28.6	4	--	4.00	0.88	14
Other	—	--	16.7	1	33.3	2	16.7	1	33.3	2	--	3.67	1.21	6

[a] Total number of teachers responding to item, excluding those teachers who responded (6) not applicable. All item statistics are based on this total.

Table 25

NUMBER AND TIME SPENT ON ASSIGNMENT TYPES FOR CASE STUDY TEACHERS

	Bilingual		Rem-10	Rem-12	Adv-10	Adv-12	Comp 11-12	Comp 11-12	Gen-9	Gen-9	Gen-12	Gen-11		
	Orozco	Siguieros	Ellis	Hayward	Newman	Grover	Merrill	Clay	Gordon	Hopkins	Woodward	Sanders	Total	%
Reading														
# assignments	0	1	5	2	2	1	1	3	5	0	3	2	25	9.1
Total time(min)	0	12	64	61	16	10	10	36	73	0	78	93	453	
Time on task(min)	0	12	12.8	30.5	8	10	10	12	14.6	0	26	46.5	18.1	
Rhetoric														
# assignments	0	0	3	0	0	0	6	1	3	0	0	0	13	4.7
Total time(min)	0	0	77	0	0	0	132	13	50	0	0	0	272	
Time on task(min)	0	0	25.7	0	0	0	22	13	16.7	0	0	0	20.9	
Ideas														
# assignments	16	14	17	6	12	1	4	10	5	1	5	1	92	33.3
Total time(min)	201	293	188	125	204	38	61	256	49	6	201	35	1658	
Time on task(min)	12.5	21	11.6	20.8	17	38	15.3	25.6	9.8	6	40.2	35	18.0	
Skills														
# assignments	21	11	23	3	4	7	4	1	14	23	2	1	114	41.3
Total time(min)	245	99	140	45	62	100	58	1	116	262	41	41	1210	
Time on task(min)	11.7	9	6.1	15	15.5	14.3	14.5	1	8.3	11.4	20.5	41	10.6	
Multiple Focus														
# assignments	2	2	2	5	2	0	3	7	2	1	3	3	32	11.6
Total time(min)	28	33	34	100	19	0	96	238	33	2	121	129	833	
Time on task(min)	14	16.5	17	20	9.5	0	32	34	16.5	2	40.3	43	26.0	
Total assignments per teacher	39	28	50	16	20	9	18	22	29	25	13	7	276	100%
% of total assignments observed	14%	10%	18%	6%	7%	3%	7%	8%	11%	9%	5%	3%		
Average time(min)	12.2	15.6	10.1	20.7	15.1	16.4	19.8	24.7	11.1	10.8	33.9	42.6	16.0	

Table 26

MEAN TIME ON TASK FOR EACH ASSIGNMENT TYPE BY CLASS TYPE

Assignment	General	Comp.	Remedial	Bilingual	Adv.	Total[a]	N[b]	% Time[c]
Reading								
Rdg w/o Comp	8.4	2.5	17.9	12.0	8.0	11.8	17	4.5
Rdg w/Comp	40.4	20.5	0	0	10.0	31.6	8	5.7
TOTAL Rdg	24.4	11.5	17.9	12.0	8.7	18.1	25	10.2
Rhetoric								
Audience	29.0	0	0	0	0	29.0	1	.7
Genre	10.5	20.7	25.7	0	0	20.3	12	5.5
TOTAL Rhetoric	16.7	20.7	25.7	0	0	20.9	13	6.1
Ideas								
Pre-Wrtg	10.5	0	7.3	0	0	8.6	5	1.0
Fluency	9.3	12.5	7.0	12.6	16.0	12.4	33	9.3
Notetkg	35.0	26.0	0	0	11.5	22.7	6	3.1
Vocab	37.5	37.0	16.3	21.0	30.3	21.3	34	16.4
Sust Wrtg	33.0	22.1	17.5	0	0	24.6	14	7.8
TOTAL Ideas	24.3	22.6	13.6	16.5	18.6	18.0	92	37.5
Skills								
Copying	13.0	14.5	7.0	10.3	15.0	11.3	33	8.4
Dictation	5.8	1.0	6.0	15.8	0	7.9	17	3.0
Recording	0	0	2.3	14.0	22.0	4.7	13	1.4
Syntax								
Prod Big	12.2	0	52.0	0	0	14.1	14	4.3
Prod Small	15.7	0	0	0	0	15.7	7	2.6
Non-Prod Big	15.0	0	4.7	9.0	13.8	11.4	12	3.1
Non-Prod Small	9.6	0	11.2	8.8	20.5	11.0	18	4.5
TOTAL Syntax	12.9	0	13.6	8.9	13.8	12.6	51	7.6
TOTAL Skills	11.5	11.8	7.1	10.8	14.7	10.6	114	27.3
Multi-Focus								
Read w/o Comp + Skills	20.0	16.0	24.5	0	0	21.3	4	1.9
Read w/Comp + Skills	0	0	17.5	0	0	17.5	2	.8
Read w/Comp + Rhet + Skills	41.0	0	0	0	0	41.0	1	.9
Rhet + Ideas + Skills	0	38.0	0	0	0	38.0	1	.8
Rhet + Skills	0	42.0	0	0	0	42.0	1	.9
Ideas + Skills	2.0	0	5.0	0	0	3.5	2	.2
Rdg w/Comp + Rhet	44.0	0	0	0	0	44.0	2	2.0
Ideas + Rhet	33.5	34.0	22.5	15.3	9.5	26.2	19	11.2
TOTAL Multi-Focus	31.7	33.4	19.1	15.3	9.5	26.0	32	18.8
							276	100%

[a] Mean time on task for each assignment type by class type = $\frac{\text{Total time spent on assignment}}{\text{Total number of assignments}}$

[b] N = number of assignments.

[c] % of total time spent on each assignment type.

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TABLE 27

What Proportion of Class Time Was Spent Writing?

Class Type	Total Classes Observed		Classes with Writing Episodes		Total Time Writing		Average Time Writing[b]
	N	Time Nx50	N	%	N	%[a]	
General	87	4350	56	64.4	1330	29.6	23.8
Composition	55	2750	31	56.4	901	32.8	29.1
Remedial	40	2000	37	92.5	834	41.7	22.5
Bilingual	44	2200	37	84.1	912	40.5	24.6
Advanced	37	1850	23	62.2	449	24.9	19.5
TOTALS	263	13150	184	70.0	4426	33.2	24.1

[a] % of Total Time Writing = $\frac{\text{Total Time Writing}}{\text{Total Time Observed}}$

[b] Average Time Writing = $\frac{\text{Total Time Writing}}{\text{Number of Classes with Writing Episodes}}$

TABLE 28

PEEVES ABOUT STUDENT WRITING
NATIONAL

Peeves	N	% Of Responses	% Of* Cases
1. Lack Basic Skills	8	13.8	21.6
2. Lack of Proofreading	7	12.1	18.9
3. Lack of Motivation	6	10.3	16.2
4. Poor Diction	4	6.9	10.8
5. Lack of Imagination	4	6.9	10.8
6. Lack of Organization	4	6.9	10.8
7. Lack of Coherence	4	6.9	10.8
8. Mechs Over Creativity	3	5.2	8.1
9. Lack of Thinking	3	5.2	8.1
10. Lack of Confidence	3	5.2	8.1
11. Teacher Overworked	3	5.2	8.1
12. Creativity Over Basics	2	3.4	5.4
13. Lack of Focus	2	3.4	5.4
14. Don't Analyze	1	1.7	2.7
15. Lack of Support Evid.	1	1.7	2.7
16. Poor Attendance	1	1.7	2.7
17. Large Classes	1	1.7	2.7
18. Peeve with Society	1	1.7	2.7
TOTAL	58	100.0%	

LOCAL

1. Lack Basic Skills	2	20.0	40.0
2. Lack of Coherence	2	20.0	40.0
3. Lack of Organization	1	10.0	20.0
4. Lack of Focus	1	10.0	20.0
5. Lack of Thinking	1	10.0	20.0
6. Lack of Support Evid.	1	10.0	20.0
7. Lack of Motivation	1	10.0	20.0
8. Teacher Overworked	1	10.0	20.0
TOTAL	10	100.0%	

*The percent of cases is not additive since multiple responses were allowed.

Table 29

PROBLEMS TEACHING WRITING

Problems	NATIONAL N	% Of Responses	% Of* Cases
1. Lack Basic Skills	20	16.1	34.5
2. Lack of Motivation	14	11.3	24.1
3. Lack Organizational Skills	11	8.9	19.0
4. Too Much to Cover	7	5.6	12.1
5. Wide Range Ability	7	5.6	12.1
5a. Editing--Proofreading	7	5.6	12.1
6. Lack Reasoning Skills	6	4.8	10.3
6a. Writing Freely--Comm.	6	4.8	10.3
7. Lack of Confidence	5	4.0	8.6
7a. Grading Problems	5	4.0	8.6
8. Class Size	4	3.2	6.9
9. Poor Student Attendance	4	3.2	6.9
10. State Comp Exams	3	2.4	5.2
11. Types of Papers	3	2.4	5.2
12. Lack of Supplies	2	1.6	3.4
13. Institutional Problems	2	1.6	3.4
14. Lack of Workmanship	2	1.6	3.4
15. Diction	2	1.6	3.4
16. Sharing	2	1.6	3.4
16a. Developing Curriculums	2	1.6	3.4
17. Lack of Help	1	0.8	1.7
18. Students' Institn Deadline	1	0.8	1.7
19. Disciplinary Problems	1	0.8	1.7
20. Not Liking to Write	1	0.8	1.7
21. Lack Cultural Info	1	0.8	1.7
22. Copying	1	0.8	1.7
23. Publishing--Posting	1	0.8	1.7
24. Time Pressure	1	0.8	1.7
25. Lack of Audience	1	0.8	1.7
26. Teacher Burnout	1	0.8	1.7
TOTAL	124	100.0%	

Problems	LOCAL N	% Of Responses	% Of* Cases
1. Lack of Motivation	5	17.9	50.0
2. Lack Basic Skills	3	10.7	30.0
3. Poor Attendance	2	7.1	20.0
4. Editing--Proofreading	2	7.1	20.0
5. Writing Freely--Comm.	2	7.1	20.0
6. Lack of Focus	2	7.1	20.0
7. Lack of Supplies	1	3.6	10.0
8. Institutional Problems	1	3.6	10.0
9. State Comp Exams	1	3.6	10.0
10. Students' Institn Deadline	1	3.6	10.0
11. Lack Organizational Skills	1	3.6	10.0
12. Lack Reasoning Skills	1	3.6	10.0
13. Diction	1	3.6	10.0
14. Lack Cultural Info	1	3.6	10.0
15. Grading Problems	1	3.6	10.0
16. Developing Curriculums	1	3.6	10.0
17. Teacher Lack of Knowledge	1	3.6	10.0
18. Non-English Speaking	1	3.6	10.0
TOTAL	28	100.0%	

* The percent of cases is not additive since multiple responses were allowed.

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Table 30

CRITICAL ASPECTS OF WRITING

NATIONAL

	Category	#	% Of Responses	% Of* Cases
1.	Basic Skills	11	9.6	24.4
2.	Organization	11	9.6	24.4
3.	Thinking	10	8.7	22.2
4.	Focus	9	7.8	20.0
5.	Coherence	7	6.1	15.6
6.	Develop Own Ideas	7	6.1	15.6
7.	Revision Skill	6	5.2	13.3
8.	Provide Suppt. Evidence	6	5.2	13.3
9.	Social Purpose--Comm.	5	4.2	11.1
10.	Composition Writing	4	3.5	8.9
11.	Variety	4	3.5	8.9
12.	Honesty	4	3.5	8.9
13.	To Enjoy Writing	4	3.5	8.9
14.	Self Confidence	4	3.5	8.9
15.	Standard English	3	2.6	6.7
16.	Proofreading	3	2.6	6.7
17.	Write More	3	2.6	6.7
18.	Recognize Audience	2	1.7	4.4
19.	Other Purpose	2	1.7	4.4
20.	Pride in Writing	2	1.7	4.4
21.	Various Sentences	1	0.9	2.2
22.	Prereading on Topic	1	0.9	2.2
23.	More Teacher Workshops	1	0.9	2.2
	TOTAL	115	100.0%	

CRITICAL ASPECTS OF WRITING

LOCAL

	Category	#	% Of Responses	% Of* Cases
1.	Basic Skills	5	20.8	71.4
2.	Organization	4	16.7	57.1
3.	Focus	3	12.5	42.9
4.	Coherence	2	8.3	28.6
5.	To Enjoy Writing	2	8.3	28.6
6.	ESL--Not To Translate	1	4.2	14.3
7.	Composition Writing	1	4.2	14.3
8.	Variety	1	4.2	14.3
9.	Imag--Creativity	1	4.2	14.3
10.	Honesty	1	4.2	14.3
11.	Social Purpose--Comm.	1	4.2	14.3
12.	Develop Own Ideas	1	4.2	14.3
13.	Provide Supporting Evid.	1	4.2	14.3
	TOTAL	24	100.0%	

*The percent of cases is not additive since multiple reponses were allowed.

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Table 31

Ranking of the Frequency of Practices

NATIONAL

	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Almost Always (5)		Not Appl. (6)			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	N	Mean	SD	Total[a] n
Standard English	1.9	1	11.1	6	18.5	10	22.2	12	46.3	25	--	4.00	1.13	54
Mechanics	1.9	1	7.4	4	16.7	9	27.8	15	46.3	25	--	4.09	1.05	54
Sentences	3.7	2	11.1	6	33.3	18	22.2	12	29.6	16	--	3.63	1.14	54
Paragraphs	1.9	1	1.9	1	25.9	14	38.9	21	31.5	17	--	3.96	0.91	54
Thesis	1.9	1	19.2	10	25.0	13	34.6	18	19.2	10	2	3.50	1.08	52
Essay	1.9	1	9.6	5	30.8	16	38.5	20	19.2	10	2	3.64	0.97	52
Job Related	11.5	6	19.2	10	40.4	21	17.3	9	11.5	6	2	2.98	1.15	52
Modelling	21.2	11	25.0	13	40.4	21	11.5	6	1.9	1	2	2.48	1.02	52
Expressing Feelings	--	--	1.9	1	20.8	11	35.8	19	41.5	22	1	4.17	0.83	53
Other	--	--	--	--	40.0	2	20.0	1	40.0	2	--	4.00	1.00	5

Table 32

LOCAL

	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Almost Always (5)		Not Appl. (6)			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	N	Mean	SD	Total[a] n
Standard English	7.1	1	14.3	2	14.3	2	28.6	4	35.7	5	--	3.71	1.33	14
Mechanics	--	--	7.1	1	7.1	1	35.7	5	50.0	7	--	4.29	0.91	14
Sentences	--	--	7.1	1	28.6	4	28.6	4	35.7	5	--	3.93	1.00	14
Paragraphs	--	--	--	--	28.6	4	28.6	4	42.9	6	--	4.14	0.86	14
Thesis	16.7	2	8.3	1	8.3	1	25.0	3	41.7	5	2	3.67	1.56	12
Essay	15.4	2	--	--	15.4	2	15.4	2	53.8	7	1	3.92	1.50	13
Job Related	--	--	21.4	3	35.7	5	21.4	3	21.4	3	--	3.43	1.09	14
Modelling	16.7	2	16.7	2	33.3	4	--	--	33.3	4	2	3.17	1.53	12
Expressing Feelings	--	--	7.1	1	21.4	3	21.4	3	50.0	7	--	4.14	1.03	14
Other	--	--	--	--	50.0	1	--	--	50.0	1	--	4.00	1.41	2

[a] Total number of teachers responding to item, excluding those teachers who responded (6) not applicable. All item statistics are based on this total.

Table 33

What is the Typical Length of A Unit of Planning?

Teacher*	Days
Incremental Planners	
Gordon	1-2 (a)
Hayward	1
Clay	1-5
Barnes	1
Mean Unit Length	1.6
Comprehensive Planners	
Grover	5-20
Hopkins	5-15
Merrill	5-15
Newman	5-15
O'Neil	10
Orozco	3-5
Sanders	5
Siguieros	5
Ellis	5
Woodward	5
Mean Unit Length	7.7 (b)

(a) when time lengths varied for an individual teacher, a median length was calculated for the individual and that was used in calculating the mean for the group.

(b) The difference between the means is statistically significant at $p < .05$ using the Wilcoxin Test.

* All teachers' names appear as pseudonyms.

Table 34

What is the Longest Unit of Planning?

Teacher	Longest Reported Detailed Plan Unit
Incremental Planners	
Gordon	18 weeks
Hayward	1/2 week
Clay	1 week
Barnes	1 week
Mean Unit Length (a)	4 days (c)
Comprehensive Planners	
Grover	4 weeks
Hopkins	3
Merrill	3
Newman	4
O'Neil	6
Orozco	18
Sanders	1
Siguieros	1
Ellis	1
Woodward	1
Mean Unit Length (b)	13 days (c)

(a) Mean calculated after excluding Mr. Gordon.

(b) Mean calculated after excluding Mr. Orozco.

(c) Differences between the means were found to be statistically significant at $p < .05$ using the Wilcoxin test.

Table 35

Causes of Changed Plans

	Students' slow progress	Student motivation	Individual student absences	Institutionally caused student absence	Instructional interruptions	Resources and supplies	Teacher motivation and energy	Total causes of changes of plans
Incremental Planners								
Gordon	X[a]	X	X	X	X		X	6
Hayward	X	X					X	3
Clay	X						X	2
Barnes	X				X			2
Total incremental planners	4	2	1	1	2	0	3	
% incremental planners	100%	50%	25%	25%	50%		75%	
Comprehensive Planners								
Grover	X							1
Hopkins	X			X				2
Merrill	X		X	X	X		X	5
Newman	X		X	X	X	X		5
O'Neil								
Orozco					X			1
Sanders	X		X	X	X			4
Siguieros	X		X	X	X			4
Ellis	X							1
Woodward								
Total comprehensive planners	7	0	4	5	5	2	1	
% comprehensive planners	70%		40%	50%	50%	20%	10%	
Total # teachers	11	2	5	6	7	2	4	
% of total group	79%	14%	36%	43%	50%	14%	29%	

[a]X = the number of teachers who reported an item as a typical cause for changing plans.

Table 36

Type of Change Allowed

	Alter schedule (take more time, slow down)	Add or substitute activity or lessons	Simplify material	Condense material to speed up	Total classes per teacher
Incremental Planners					
Gordon	X[a]	X	X		3
Hayward	X	X			2
Clay	X				1
Barnes	X				1
Total incremental planners	4	2	1	0	
% incremental planners	100%	50%	25%		
Comprehensive Planners					
Grover	X				1
Hopkins			X	X	2
Merrill	X				1
Newman	X	X			2
O'Neil		X		X	2
Orozco	X				1
Sanders		X			1
Siguieros	X	X	X		3
Ellis	X				1
Woodward	X	X			2
Total comprehensive planners	7	5	2	2	
% comprehensive planners	70%	50%	20%	20%	
Total # teachers	11	7	3	2	
% of total group	79%	50%	21%	14%	

[a] X = the number of teachers who reported an item as a typical change in their plans.

Table 37

Foci Reported in Detailed Planning for Composition Instruction

Plan Focus	Teaching strategy (order and sequence)	Choice of content-related to writing assignment	Handouts	Writing topic	Other student learning tasks (reading, discussion)	Student activity structure	Schedule due dates	Evaluation and response practices	Total foci per teacher
<u>Incremental Planners</u>									
Gordon	X[C]	X	X	X	X	X			6
Hayward		X	X						2
Clay		X		X					2
Barnes		X		X					2
Total # incremental planners	1	4	2	3	1	1	0	0	
% incremental planners	25%	100%	50%	75%	25%	25%			
Mean # foci per incremental planner									3.0
<u>Comprehensive Planners</u>									
Grover	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		7
Hopkins	X	X					X		3
Merrill	X	X		X			X		4
Newman	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
O'Neil		X		X					2
Orozco							X		1
Sanders	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		7
Siguieros	X	X	X	X					4
Ellis	X	X	X	X	X				5
Woodward		X		X					2
Total comprehensive planners	7	9	5	8	4	3	6[a]	1	
% comprehensive planners	70%	90%	50%	80%	40%	30%	60%	10%	
Mean # foci per comprehensive planner									4.3
Total # teachers	8	13[b]	7	11	5	4	6	1	
% of total group	57%	93%	50%	79%	36%	29%	43%	7%	

[a] The difference between groups was statistically significant at p=.05 using Sign test

[b] The difference between groups was statistically significant at p=.05 using Irwin Fisher Exact test

[C] X = the number of teachers who reported an item as a typical plan focus.

Table 38

What Problems Do Students Have With Hypothetical Assignments?

	Assign #1		Assign #2		Assign #3	
Category	N = 69		N = 67		N = 58	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Invention	34	49.3	13	19.4	13	22.4
Organization	21	31.4	27	40.3	19	32.8
Skills	29	42	16	23.9	23	39.7
Personal	3	2.9	2	3.0	4	6.9
None	11	15.9	19	28.4	14	24.1

Table 39

Actual Assignments:

What Problems Do Students Have With Assignments?

	Invention Content A	Organization Form B	Mechanics C	Personal D	None E	
Of the 84 students what percentage named a given problem at least once?	32.1%	19.0%	19.0%	4.8%	32.1%	N=84
What percentage of students at the lowest proficiency level named a given problem?	0	37.5	25.0	12.5	37.5	
What percentage of students at just below proficiency level name a given problem?	33.3	20.8	16.7	0	37.5	
What percentage of students at a passing level named a given problem?	43.5	17.4	8.7	0	34.8	
What percentage of students at a high level named a given problem?	28.6	14.3	28.6	10.7	25.0	

Table 40

LOCAL TEACHER RANKINGS OF ANCHOR PAPERS

	RANK ORDER													
	NO. 1		NO. 2		NO. 3		NO. 4		NO. 5		NO. 6		TOTAL	
PAPER NO.	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%[a]
21	12	85.7	2	14.3	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	14	100
31	2	14.3	12	85.7	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	14	100
51	--	--	--	--	8	57.1	4	28.6	2	14.3	--	--	14	100
61	--	--	--	--	6	42.9	6	42.9	2	14.3	--	--	14	100
71	--	--	--	--	--	--	3	21.4	8	57.1	3	21.4	14	100
41	--	--	--	--	--	--	1	7.1	2	14.3	11	78.6	14	100

N = 14

[a]Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding

Table 41

Rankings by Students

	1		2		3		4		5		6	
Paper No.	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
21	98	86	9	7.9	4	3.5	2	1.8	1	0.9	0	0
31	12	10.5	81	71.1	12	10.5	3	2.6	4	3.9	2	1.8
51	0	0	10	8.8	30	26.3	49	43	18	15.8	7	6.1
61	2	1.8	8	7	56	49.1	34	29.8	13	11.4	1	0.9
71	0	0	2	1.8	6	5.3	13	11.4	34	29.8	59	51 8
41	2	1.8	3	2.6	7	6.1	12	10.5	45	39.5	45	39.5

Table 42

How Do Teachers Respond to the Writing of Students in Different Classes? (Student Questionnaire)

NATIONAL

	ESL N=15		Remedial N=41		Average N=48		Advanced N=40	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Letter Grade	9	60.0	24	58.5	39	81.3	34	85.0
Mechanics	12	80.0	30	73.2	42	87.5	34	85.0
Content	6	40.0	25	61.0	42	87.5	37	92.5
Logic & Org.	5	33.3	21	51.2	35	72.9	37	92.5
Style	3	20.0	9	22.0	25	52.1	35	87.5
Wrtg. Conference	7	46.7	26	63.4	28	58.3	28	70.0
Read Papers Aloud	7	46.7	23	56.1	40	83.3	35	87.5
Post or Publish	5	33.3	15	36.6	29	60.4	29	72.5
Other	—	—	1	2.4	3	6.3	3	7.5

LOCAL

	ESL N=9		Remedial N=10		Average N=13		Advanced N=12	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Letter Grade	6	66.7	4	40.0	9	69.2	8	66.7
Mechanics	5	55.6	5	50.0	8	61.5	8	66.7
Content	5	55.6	6	60.0	11	84.6	9	75.0
Logic & Org.	4	44.4	5	50.0	9	69.2	9	75.0
Style	3	33.3	3	30.0	6	46.2	8	66.7
Wrtg. Conference	5	55.6	5	50.0	7	53.8	6	50.0
Read Papers Aloud	5	55.6	5	50.0	10	76.9	8	66.7
Post or Publish	4	44.4	3	30.0	6	46.2	6	50.0
Other	1	11.1	1	10.0	2	15.4	2	16.7

[a] Percents are based upon the number of teachers who indicated that they taught that type of student (N at top of each column)

Table 43

What Responses Do Students Receive to Their Writing?

(Teacher Questionnaire)

NATIONAL

	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Almost Always (5)		Not Appl. (6)			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	N	Mean	SD	Total[a] n
Teacher Feedback	--	--	5.7	3	15.1	8	35.8	19	43.4	23	1	4.17	0.89	53
Student Feedback	5.6	3	13.0	7	42.6	23	18.5	10	20.4	11	--	3.35	1.12	54
Revision of Grammar	1.9	1	11.3	6	20.8	11	32.1	17	34.0	18	1	3.85	1.08	53
Revision of Content	2.0	1	3.9	2	35.3	18	31.4	16	27.5	14	1	3.78	0.97	51
Other	--	--	--	--	25.0	1	25.0	1	50.0	2	--	4.25	0.96	4

LOCAL

	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Almost Always (5)		Not Appl. (6)			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	N	Mean	SD	Total[a] n
Teacher Feedback	--	--	7.1	1	14.3	2	35.7	5	42.9	6	--	4.14	0.95	14
Student Feedback	--	--	15.4	2	7.7	1	61.5	8	15.4	2	1	3.77	0.93	13
Revision of Grammar	--	--	14.3	2	7.1	1	28.6	4	50.0	7	--	4.14	1.10	14
Revision of Content	--	--	21.4	3	21.4	3	28.6	4	28.6	4	--	3.64	1.15	14
Other	--	--	--	--	--	--	33.3	1	66.7	2	--	4.67	0.58	3

[a] Total number of teachers responding to item, excluding those teachers who responded (6) not applicable. All item statistics are based on this total.

Table 44

Writing Assignments of Teachers Used in Segment Study (a)

Writing Episode	Teacher		
	Ms. Grover	Mr.Siguieros	Mr. Gordon
Vocabulary	1	2	0
Note taking	1	1	0
Grammar	2	1	2
Short Answer	1	2	0
Brief Timed Writing	0	1	1
Sustained Writing	0	1	1
Journal Writing	0	0	1

(a) This table shows the writing episodes occuring in the sample of classes analyzed for segmentation analysis. For a complete list of writing episodes from each teacher see Table 25.

Table 45

Frequency of Segments in 12 Classrooms

Teacher	No. of Classes	No. of Segments	Range	Mean
GEN. ENGLISH				
Gordon	22	74	2-5	3.4
Hopkins	22	57	1-5	2.6
Woodward	14	36	203	2.6
Sanders	23	33	1-3	1.4
Total	81	200	1-5	2.5
COMPOSITION				
Merrill	25	35	1-3	1.4
Clay	23	32	1-3	1.4
Total	48	67	1-3	1.4
REMEDIAL				
Ellis	24	31	1-7	1.9
Hayward	16	20	1-2	1.3
Total	32	51	1-7	1.7
BILINGUAL				
Orozco	18	52	1-4	2.9
Siguieros	41	116	1-5	2.8
Total	41	116	1-5	2.8
ADVANCED				
Newman	24	54	1-5	2.3
Grover	12	23	1-3	1.9
Total	36	77	1-5	2.1
GRAND TOTAL	246	511	1-7	2.1

Table 46

Frequency of Non-Verbal Behavior as Openers and Closers

NON-VERBAL BEHAVIOR	TEACHER		
	Ms. Grover	Mr. Siguieros	Mr. Gordon
	N = 11	n = 20	n = 18
Shift in Teacher Position	64% (7)	30% (6)	22% (4)
Distribution of Material	36% (4)	40% (8)	33% (6)
Writing on Board	0 0	30% (6)	11% (2)
Manipulation of Equipment	0 0	0 0	33% (6)

Table 47

Examples of Various Speech Acts

SPEECH EVENT		GROVER	SIGUIEROS	GORDON
Request	Imperative	"Write until 10 after & then we'll share." "Pass the papers in."	"Today make some creative sentences using 3 words." "Please study for the quiz tomorrow."	"Pass your papers forward pls." "Cut off at this point." "Try to fill out the tree."
	Declarative	"OK, you have 2 or 3 minutes to look over yr. notes." "When the bell rings you may leave."	"You are going to put capital letters where necessary." "OK, I'd like you to define your words."	"Those done may begin sustained silent reading."
Informative		"Tomorrow you'll have to work faster, it's not that difficult." "This should be 2nd nature."	"I know you don't practice English enough. You need this practice." "I think most of you understand the reasons for cap. here."	"If we didn't learn anything from the proficiency test, we did learn 1 thing--a lot of Mapleton Public School students don't know stand. verb forms."
Expressive		"These are very acceptable sentences."		"I was disappointed with the sentence combining." "Would you believe that?!"
Joke/ Tease			"Is that your tie on the door?" T: 1 extra minute! (kept class after bell) S: Two!	"If I let you run would you learn anything?" "Any donations for the waste-basket gladly accepted." (repeated several times)
Formula		"OK, have a nice day, see you tomorrow." "See you Monday."		"ladies and gentlemen" "Moving right along"
Performative		"Tomorrow I'll give your papers back."	"I'm going to rearrange seats." "I will dictate 3 sentences."	"I'm going to be demonstrating in silent lang." (acts out mime) "I'll call out the names of several S's going various places today."
Question		"Who are the representatives from the groups?" "Is everyone finished? Jesus?"	"Which students haven't signed up for the field trip?" "Would you read for us, Carmella?"	"How do you take the steam out of the other person's argument?" "May I have your attention?"

Table 48

Definitions of Speech Acts

SPEECH EVENT		INCLUDES	EXAMPLE
Request	Imperative	command, syntactic imperative Students asked to perform task or given permission to perform task	"Choose six words and write a paragraph on them." "Leave when the bell rings."
	Declarative	command, syntactic declarative Students asked to perform task or given permission to perform task.	"OK, I'd like you to define your words." "When the bell rings you may leave."
Informative		opinion, idea, observation, example, fact, reason	"I know you don't practice English enough, you need this practice." "They shouldn't call me in class anyway (i.e. on the phone)."
Expressive		personalized comment, praise, negative observation	"I was disappointed with the sentence combining."
Joke/Tease		humorous comment, different to a student or to the class as a whole	"Is that your tie on the door?"
Formula		utterance which appears to be a non-segmentable unit	"have a nice day" "ladies and gentlemen"
Performative		utterance containing an explicit performative verb and/or a statement of teacher intent	"OK, I'm going to rearrange seats." "I will dictate five sentences."
Question		question	"Is everyone finished?" "Would you read for us, Carmella?"

Speech Event		Grover		Siguieros		Gordon	
		Openers N = 20	Closers N = 17	Openers N = 35	Closers N = 21	Openers N = 32	Closers N = 19
Request	Imperative	(11) 55%	(2) 12%	(7) 20%	(5) 24%	(4) 13%	(2) 11%
	Declarative	(2) 10%	(1) 6%	(4) 11%	(1) 5%	(1) 3%	∅
Informative		(3) 15%	(4) 24%	(12) 34%	(7) 33%	(15) 47%	(6) 32%
Expressive		∅	(1) 6%	∅	∅	(1) 3%	(3) 16%
Joke/Tease		∅	∅	(1) 3%	(2) 10%	∅	(3) 16%
Formula		∅	(6) 35%	∅	∅	(5) 16%	∅
Performance		(3) 15%	(2) 12%	(6) 17%	(1) 5%	(4) 13%	(3) 16%
Question		(1) 5%	(1) 6%	(5) 14%	(5) 24%	(2) 6%	(2) 11%

Table 49

Frequencies of Speech Acts for the Three Teachers

Table 5G

Speech Act Totals

SPEECH ACT		OPENER N = 87	CLOSER N = 57	TOTAL NUMBER OF OCCURENCES	% OF OCCURENCES N = 144
REQUEST	IMPERATIVE	25% (22)	16% (9)	31	22%
	DECLARATIVE	8% (7)	4% (2)	9	6%
INFORMATIVE		34% (30)	30% (17)	47	33%
EXPRESSIVE		1% (1)	7% (4)	5	3%
JOKE/TEASE		1% (1)	9% (5)	6	4%
FORMULA		6% (5)	11% (6)	11	8%
PERFORMATIVE		15% (13)	11% (6)	19	13%
QUESTION		9% (8)	14% (8)	16	11%

V. THE CLASS PERIOD: THE TEACHER AS MANAGER

The previous chapter focused on the Lesson and on the three primary responsibilities of teachers as instructors of writing-- planning assignments, giving assignments, responding to the writing resulting from the assignments, and establishing routines which, among other things, gauge attention span limits versus needs for additional work time and mark transitions to another lesson or another part of the same lesson. This chapter focuses on the Class Period and on the teacher as a manager of classroom administrative matters.

In the previous chapter, there were many indications that management responsibilities were an important consideration in the way teachers shaped their lessons. Ms. Grover reported that she made it clear to school administrators that she expected no interruptions and, as a result, she was able to minimize many of the institutionally based interruptions which all other teachers in the study reported as an unalterable fact of school life. In contrast, Mr. Gordon's class, which was also used as a homeroom period, was interrupted frequently, and as a result he reported that he always planned for a class the morning before because at that point he could check the school schedule and make allowances for special schedules and some other interruptions.

The case study teachers,then, assumed a given set of management problems as part of their plans for the Class Period. What follows is an examination of four of those problems -- discipline,classroom interruptions, attendance, and maintenance of resources.

A. ESTABLISHING DISCIPLINE

The data on discipline was collected from three sources -- class observations, interviews of the case study students, and local teacher interviews and questionnaires. The observation matrix for class notes was coded for discipline problems and this discipline code was placed in the left margin of the notes. A discipline event occurred when the teacher made a discipline move in response to the behavior of a student or students. If the teacher made no public comment, gesture or sound or took no action, then no discipline episode was coded.

Observations in eleven classes were used in the discipline sub-study. Journalism was dropped because it did not function as a regular class, and

discipline episodes were not a serious constraint on the writing and learning in the classroom. The classes of Barnes and Orozco were dropped because their students were not available for the student interviews on discipline. After locating the 767 discipline episodes in the 242 class observations, we analyzed the discipline episodes for form, location, and the student behavior eliciting the response.

The teacher responses were grouped according to type of speech act: declaratives, imperatives, questions, appellations, a noise, an action, a formulaic "Ladies and Gentlemen," and a non-verbal response (See Table 51). Imperatives, declaratives, questions, or appellations were the four most frequently used forms. Imperatives were discipline moves that took a command form, such as "SSSh!" "Quiet!" "Take the gum out," and "Stop talking." Declaratives often carried as much force as imperatives, but were more statement-like and included "I don't appreciate talking," "I assume that's (the talking) about the plot," and "This is not a group effort, it's an individual exercise." Questions were often less forceful than declaratives or imperatives but potentially just as effective. Some typical questions were "Does the conversation pertain?" "Am I talking to myself?" "Are you writing something?" Appellations were simply calling out a student's name one or several times. Non-verbal discipline responses included gestures ranging from a frown to a finger placed on the lips or a shaking of the head or a hard, silent stare which caused members of the class to look in the direction of the difficulty. Noise responses included coughs, growls, whistles and so forth. The formulais "Ladies and Gentlemen" was a discipline response in some classes, reserved for those moments when student behavior was being questioned. The last type of response was teacher action, including asking the student or students to leave the room, change seats, or wait in the hallway.

The location of the teacher response was coded for four kinds of public responses and two private. The public responses were (1) teacher to whole class when not instructing whole class, (2) teacher to whole class when instructing, thereby interrupting whole class instruction, (3) teacher to an individual student in public, and (4) teacher to a group of students in public. The private responses were (1) teacher to individual student in private and (2) teacher to group of students in private. Out of the 765 discipline episodes, the class notes had a record of only 65 private responses from the teacher, 56 responses to individuals and 9 responses to groups (See Table 51). Most of the discipline responses by

teachers were public.

The third coding of the discipline episodes marked the student behavior which elicited the teacher response (see Table 51). The categories for student behavior were based on the way the teacher characterized the behavior at the moment and such behavior in general, and the way students characterized such behavior in their interviews. Some of the student descriptions of specific student behavior, such as "manners," although commonly used by many students to describe gum chewing, wearing hats in the room, and putting one's feet on the desk or sprawling across the aisle, were often not indicative of what kind of behavior was occurring. However, the five categories used to group student behavior provided helpful distinctions. The Student Response category referred to episodes in which the student talked too loudly or generally made noise, was looking out the window or in some way not listening to the teacher, was not doing the assignment, either reading or writing, or working too slowly, not speaking loudly enough for teacher and class to hear, not being responsive to a teacher or student question, and not being generally quiet or attentive. In these Student Response behaviors the teacher is identifying the student's behavior as in some way an overt interruption of class activities.

Another group of student behaviors were not an overt interruption, but a violation of a class code about on-task behavior. Student Off-Task behavior included gum chewing; engaging in open off- task activities such as playing cards; reading off task, such as a magazine not used in class; writing off task, such as a social note to a friend; and being unprepared for the lesson. A third group of behaviors focused on absenteeism and tardiness, a fourth on potential behaviors, either a reminder of what the student did in the past or a projection about what the student might do in the future, and a fifth focused on discipline problems associated with assignments.

This fifth set of behaviors included copying from other students; turning papers , books, and homework in late or not at all; poor work habits, such as no pencil and paper; grammar mistakes which are publicly criticized; and work which was generally incorrect. A sixth code was applied to 17 discipline episodes in which student behaviors could not be consistently identified from the observation notes or matrix.

Out of the total of 767 discipline episodes, overt Student Responses which the teacher thought interrupted class activities occurred in 554 of the episodes, non-overt Off-Task behavior in 122 episodes, assignment related problems in 36 episodes, attendance problems in 30, Past and Future problems in 8 and 17 discipline episodes with unknown student causes. Because the teacher responded in all cases, some degree of interruption occurred in all discipline episodes. In general, the primary discipline problem identified by teacher response was the overt interruption of the class by students, and the most common problem in this category was students talking loudly and making noise. This occurred 431 times out of 767 discipline episodes in 242 class observations. Teachers rarely disciplined students for attendance, past and future problems, or assignment related problems. The inner city teachers in this study managed, on the average, 3.19 discipline problem each class period observed.

The fact that discipline problems interrupt school life for many students was also evident in the student responses in the interview. In fact, the major discipline problems identified by the students were the problems which most frequently elicited a teacher response. 51% of the students identified the problem of talking and noise as a major problem either in their classes in general or just in their writing class. 21% of the 98 identified off-task behavior such as chewing gum, eating food in class, "talking back to the teacher," and using profanity. In general, the students, like the teachers, thought attendance a rare discipline problem, only 13% naming the problem as a major concern.

When students were asked what should be done about the discipline problems in the school and in classes, 21 percent suggested that teachers should change their teaching style and lay down the rules, 29 percent suggested sending the students out of the room or home, and 13 percent recommended lowering grades.

Some specific comments from students illustrate their perception of the connection between discipline and successful completion of classwork:

Student One:

> In Kentucky the discipline is more organized...without a mention they'll whup you. But they'll have the mother's permission, like that.

(Mentions fact that he was more advanced than other students when he came here from Kentucky).

Until I started cuttin and actin bad I fell back down. I wished I wouldn't did that...teachers letting you get your way, you can walk out when you want to, didn't have to come back unless you come on time (inaudible) you just keep on walkin and the day go by fast.

Student Two:

Some teachers let you get your way and some teachers don't and the teachers that don't let you get your way is better, because you learn more. In Ms...room you're sitting in your seat--she disciplines--when it's time to work she don't jump around.

Students also identified disciplinary strategies they thought worked. They specifically valued consistency, firm directness, and establishing the rules early in the school year.

Student Three (consistency):

Everybody talks a whole lot, including myself (laughter). Like a whole lot. He has to come down harder on us. Except, you know, Mr. (teacher) he is that kind of person that lets you get away with a lot of things. Right? So when he gets tough--well, you remember how he messed me up that day...you remember that day and I got all mad and you know that wasn't called for or anything but you know he's not the kind of person that goes around getting mad for the heck of it so when he did get mad it kind of surprised me and I got mad. If he would all of a sudden get real tough--all of a sudden come in one day and decide, I'm gonna get rid of this, apply pressure little by little so that when he reaches a limit everyone knows where he stand but then one day he comes in and says OK everybody shut up, but the next day he allows us to talk, we've got a complete different thing there. We don't know what we supposed to be doing. That don't work properly.

Student Four (firm directness):

Second period they just run all over him completely. Really, just like--he's a lot weaker than Ms. (teacher). He's not strong enough. He's

a good teacher, he's very intelligent, and he's got degrees, all kinds of foreign languages...Ms. (teacher) is more direct. Sometimes seems like she's too direct. She'll jump on you when you really haven't done anything. But it keeps everything going. She (talks?) a lot in a way that will embarrass you in front of the students, put you down in ways that kids do. You know, the way kids use slang and all that. He doesn't...he doesn't say anything. The students do that to him...Come on now, What's happenin, blood? What's going on? Zero. He likes to kid. But they just run him, they run that classroom...

Student Five (establishing the rules):

(Answering question: "Are there any discipline problems?") Usually none in the beginning. If he started out--I notice that with a lot of teachers--if they try to do it later these kids won't listen but if you do it right when they get in there--lay out the rules--what's going to happen--you just start going into it like, here's a book, read it, don't play around, if kids play around send them to the counselor or something. You just usually get better students in the class.

Teachers had some similarities in the way they handled discipline (See Table 51). First, almost two-thirds of the teacher discipline moves are directed toward individuals and groups of students and one-third toward the whole class. Second, if teachers are lecturing, they make few discipline moves toward the whole class. In general, teachers believe that whole class discipline episodes tend to occur when teachers are making an assignment or when students have assignments to do. Third, declaratives and imperatives are the most common discipline moves made by teachers.

Differences of discipline style among the eleven teachers were also investigated. First, we calculated for each teacher the average number of discipline episodes per class:

Relationship Between Frequency of
Discipline Episodes and Disciplinary Style

Style	Teacher	Average No. Discipline Episodes Per Class
Direct Repeater	Sanders	5.23
	Merrill	4.33
Stapler	Hopkins	2.94
	Hayward	2.33
Establisher	Gordon	1.81
	Grover	1.60
Indirect Repeater	Siguieros	4.84
	Clay	4.76
	Newman	3.64
	Woodward	10.14
	Ellis	5.01
OVERALL AVERAGE		3.19

Next, the teachers were clustered around differences in overall frequency of discipline episodes, forming three groups (1-2, 2-3, and above 3), and differences in tone, splitting the top group (above 3) into two different groups. The notes from the observations reporting these discipline episodes were checked for general impressions of tone in all four groups, and the observers were asked to confirm or modify these impressions. The four discipline styles were named Direct Repeaters (above 3, with frequent Declaratives and Imperatives), Indirect Repeaters (above 3, with jokes and asides to ease tension), Staplers (2-3, a declarative and imperative style but fewer discipline moves), and Establishers (few discipline moves).

Direct repeaters frequently discipline the students, repeat themselves, and are strict on a continuing basis. In one instance of this style, the teacher had given a writing assignment and students were to share what they had written with the class. Two students declined to do so. The teacher said: "All of you <u>have</u> to write. When you say you don't understand, you <u>still</u> have to write." Next two students shared what they had written. In response to one, the teacher said with exasperation "Be serious with me class! What is that?" (what the student had written). A few more students shared their compositions. One student asked another a question quietly. The teacher stopped the class and said "'Wait, wait, wait....we don't talk to each other, we talk to all of us." The continuous discipline response characterized this teacher's style and

the style of direct repeaters.

"Staplers" disciplined from time to time in a very firm and definite manner. They did not discipline as frequently as "Repeaters." In one example of this style, a student entered the class late, and the teacher told the student to "go back down" to the office. The student argued with the teacher, and there was a brief exchange. In conclusion the teacher told the student "I'll deal with you later. I've got a class."

Ms. Hopkin's class reflected the general style of staplers. Approximately one quarter of the classes had no displinary episodes whatsoever. However, those which did exhibited her insistence on silence and hard work. No talking was allowed, especially when Ms. Hopkins was addressing the class. In addition, students were not to leave until the bell rang. As punishment, she had students write sentences, although student behavior seldom required this action. Most of the time students were working, well aware of the fact that they were to behave or leave. Many of the students were disciplined at one point or another during the course of the observations.

"Establishers," like "Staplers," have clear guidelines and behavior rules, but Establishers disciplined infrequently, expecting the class to internalize the rules and exert self-discipline. As an example of this, the teacher, noting that a student had changed her seat, said quietly, "Why don't you take your seat?"

Mr. Gordon, one example of an Establisher, kept the focus on classwork. His physical presence and movement among the students reflected both the ongoing energetic nature of activities and his focus on individuals. He avoided direct confrontation with the students, helped them focus on their work, and to avoid discipline episodes used such moves as asking students whether they understood. It is interesting to note that when a substitute took over the same class for two days there were nearly as many disciplinary episodes in that short time as there were during the entire time Mr. Gordon was observed.

Mr. Gordon structured the class to keep the students moving from one activity to the next at a constant pace. At the beginning of class, the bulletin was read and papers were passed out, giving students the opportunity to settle down. During transitions from one activity to another and during the occasional times when students worked in small groups, Mr. Gordon would allow the noise level to rise, though he would

quickly re-establish focus or go around to the small groups, making sure the students were on-task. This allowance for changes in noise level and for students to move freely to use resources when needed (e.g. to sharpten pencils or get dictionaries) undoubtedly worked as a release for potentially disruptive student energies.

One example of the failure to establish a rule was in Mr. Siguleros' class. The class segregated itself into male and female groups and Mr. Siguleros made repeated efforts to reassign seats in order to control noise, etc. Students eventually drifted back to their original seats and reassigning would begin all over again.

"Indirect Repeaters" can be characterized by their ongoing humorous, conversational discipline style. Often the discipline is in the form of jokes, asides, or friendly reminders. An example of this might be the teacher's response to a student talking, saying, "Let's please not infringe on anyone else's concentration." Or a joking comment to the class in the same situation would be: "Is that the hum of creative minds I hear?"

Mr. Woodward's class stood out for the greatest frequency of disciplinary episodes. It is noteworthy for some of the unique methods used in disciplining. He maintained a close, friendly relationship to the students, disciplined constantly and had an authoritative ring to his voice.

Much of the class was structured in such a way that one-on-one conferencing was the major teacher-student activity. When Mr. Woodward circulated he often put off requests for help from students, then looped back to attend to the first group of students. Often by the time one section had quieted down, another group had become noisy again.

Mr. Woodward disciplined the class with "Ladies and Gentlemen," meaning "be quiet" 31 times during the observations, a device almost unique to him among the 11 teachers and he also used such devices as whistles.

Teachers in the national sample expressed views consistent with local teachers and students on the importance of discipline for teaching success. When asked to indicate constraints on their effectiveness in teaching writing, teachers at the national sites identified student attendance and disciplinary problems as being among the five most significant constraints. Discipline and attendance were ranked after funding and program cutbacks, physical decay of inner city areas,

teacher layoffs, and entry skills of students. On the same questionnaire the local teachers, like the national teachers, ranked student attendance and disciplinary problems among the top five constraints.

B. Handling Interruptions

Writing classes in inner-city schools were interrupted by a variety of actions. An interruption was an event which required the teacher's attention and which caused the class activity to stop or not get started. Interruptions were messages delivered by students or staff to teachers or students, students entering and leaving the room with permits, adults in and out of the room to deliver messages to teachers and students, telephone messages on the class telephone, alarms (usually fire), administrative matters such as reading bulletins or listening to a counselor review scheduling procedures, announcements over the public address system, and other, such as noise (jack-hammers, car backfiring).

The fact that an action interrupted a class activity did not necessarily mean that the interruption became markedly disruptive. That is, the interruption may have been handled by the teacher in such a way that even though class activities had been stopped to some degree, the teacher managed a smooth transition, keeping the class ready to start again rather than allowing the class to drift away. Table 52 shows the types of interruptions that were recorded in various classes, the average number of interruptions per class period, and the frequency of student assistance with interruptions. 247 classroom observations were coded for interruptions in 13 classrooms. O'Neil, the Journalism teacher, was dropped because his class could not be interrupted. 33 other class periods were dropped in order to ensure that the sample had normal class periods with interruptions noted. The 13 classrooms averaged 1.62 acknowledged interruptions each period. The acknowledged interruption is one which causes some interruption of the class and some reponse from the teacher or a student acting for the teacher. The notes also recorded some interruptions which were not acknowledged by the teacher or a student acting for the teacher. In 34 of the 393 interruptions of 242 class periods, students assisted teachers with the management of the interruption. Table 52 shows the nature of the interruption and the student assistance when it occurred.

C. Monitoring Attendance

The teacher of writing in inner-city secondary schools was also a manager of attendance. That is, the teacher was expected to keep attendance records, report

absences, and call parents or send notices home of regular absenteeism. The writing classes observed averaged 30 percent of the students absent everyday observed (see Table 53). The average class enrollment was 27.21 and the average attendance was 18.87. One class had 32 students enrolled and 18 absent, on the average, everyday. Data reported on the teacher questionnaire also made clear that there were student attendance problems. The national sample reported an average class enrollment of 26.3 students but an average daily attendance of 22.3, or 85 percent of the enrollment (See table 54 and 53). The local teachers reported that for all their classes, the average enrollment was 25.9, but the average daily attendance was 21.3, or 82 percent of the enrollment (see table 54). This discrepancy between reported and observed attendance can be explained, at least in part, by the fact that enrollment includes everyone on the class list, but teachers start not considering students as enrolled who do not return to class for several months. There is also the possibility that attendance was higher on the days that the classes were not observed.

Students entering the class late were also a management problem for teachers. Table 52 shows that late students averaged .74 every class period in the observed classes, creating a management task for reporting and recording tardies and an instructional task for integrating late students into the work of the class.

C. Coordinating Resources

The teacher was also a manager of resources for the classroom-- securing paper, books, machines, whatever was required for the writing program in the room. Table 56 shows the resources which the 14 teachers were observed using, and Table 58 shows the resources which teachers report they use. The first table lists equipment and other items which can be observed, and the second table lists sources of ideas and influence. Table 56 gives the observer's summary judgment of whether the teachers and/or students were hampered by limited resources.

When asked on the questionnaire to identify resources which increased their personal effectiveness (Table 58), teachers in the national sample identified, as noted earlier, leadership of the department chair as the greatest resource, followed by fellow teachers, special writing skills classes, and leadership of the principal. Teachers in the local sample likewise identified these on the questionniare as among the top resources; however, they cited the test of writing

competency standards as the greatest resource, followed by U.S. government funding (as in Title I programs), and then the department chair, fellow teachers, inservice training opportunities, and the leadership of the school principal.

Many teachers reported that equipment was usually in short supply. In one of the observed schools, the English Department did not have a working 16mm movie projector available so that students could participate in writing reviews of films in a local film festival.The list on Table 56 shows that dictionaries are not available in some rooms, clerical help is not available for the teachers, and four classrooms have a sense of limited resources. The others are either uncertain or adequate. In any event, the shortage of resources and the teacher's effort to secure and manage the resources are an influence on the teaching of writing in inner city schools.

The teacher's responsibilities include managing resources, attendance records, discipline episodes, and classroom interruptions. But much of the flavor of the quality and quantity of teacher management responsibilities in inner city secondary schools did not seem to be captured entirely by these four categories because many of these management responsibilities were so embedded in the routines of school that they go unnoticed by teachers and students and sometimes by experienced observers.

One example of such a responsibility is the cleaning of rooms. Two teachers, because of reported cutbacks in janitorial services, were reported in the observation notes to take some responsibility for keeping rooms clean. One observer, reporting on a first period class, arrived at school early and noted in her before-class report the following:

> Because of cutbacks in custodial help, classrooms were cleaned only once every week or two. Each morning before school, spray can in hand, the teacher went up and down aisles squirting cleaner on desk tops, then wiping desks with a cloth to remove dirt and/or graffiti.

Another observer reported the following:

> The teacher told students that they should pick up paper and trash on the floor since she had no janitorial help and must keep the room clean herself.

Another observer was asked to trace the reasons for various class interruptions in the class the observer was observing. This observer reported the following:

1. Scheduling of proficiency exams. These seemed to disrupt Mr. Siguieros's class in three ways: students were pulled out of class to take the exams, Mr. Siguieros was pulled out of the class to administer the exams, and class was frequently interrupted by other students seeking the correct room and/or time in which to take the exams.

2. Discussion of administrative forms. Three or four segments (and one whole class period) during the observation period were devoted to this. Mr. Siguieros not only had to read the forms and/or bulletins to students, but also to translate them into Spanish, and sometimes help students complete the forms (which involved explanations on his part in Spanish and English).

3. Field trips. Two field trips were specifically scheduled for this class during the observation period, and students were frequently absent on other days so they could attend field trips arranged in other classes. In addition, each field trip involved some portion of class time spent on discussion of permission slips (see 2 above).

4. TB tests, sewage problem. (These might be termed "health hazard" constraints). One entire class (and portions of two others) was disrupted by the administration of tuberculosis tests to students in this classroom (since it adjoins the "language lab" classroom attended by an Asian student having active TB). Students were pulled from class to visit the school nurse, sent home to get permission slips signed so they could have the tests done, and ultimately expelled from school if they hadn't gotten the tests done by the required time.

   The sewage back-up (see introduction) disrupted the class, first because there was some suggestion that the whole classroom area be blocked off so students couldn't walk through the sewage-flooded carpet.

   Mr. Siguieros was initially told he would have to find another classroom for the next day's class. But then school officials simply laid down boards in the hallway and class was held as usual, with only the school bell schedule disrupted (class

started somewhat later than usual, so officials had time to lay the boards down before students entered the halls.) Class was also disrupted during the actual repair work, since the workers used jack-hammers to rip up the hall floors. Mr. Siguleros seemed conscious of this as a potential disruption, and paced the class accordingly, though the noise was never actually so great as to make instruction inaudible.

5. Telephone. During one observation, the classroom phone range before the end of class, and Mr. Siguleros pointedly refused to answer it, despite student insistence that he do so. (The phone range again during the "nutrition break" that day, and Siguleros did finally answer it.) Mr. Siguleros remarked that the phone frequently rings during class, though he has told people in the school office not to call during the period unless it is urgent. Siguleros complained that most of these disruptions involve "stupid" requests for information about student absences, etc. and he considers them a particularly irritating and unnecessary disruption of his lessons.

6. Administration of other classes. Though Mr. Siguleros never complained about these disruptions, he was frequently called upon, by teachers and students, to administer the "class" (usually three or four students) held in the next door "language lab" during this period. During early observations, there seemed to be a teacher present in that class (she often entered Mr. Siguleros's class to consult with him as he circulated among the students). By the end of the school year, this teacher was no longer present, and her students seemed to be left to their own devices unless Mr. Siguleros or Mr. Orozco (another teacher in the study) monitored the class and/or supervised them in "independent studies."

7. PA announcements. These occurred occasionally during class (to congratulate the baseball team, direct teachers to clear the halls of students, announce special events, etc.). Neither the teacher nor the students paid much attention to these announcements (they were never heard to occur during Siguleros's presentation of a lesson--only during consultation episodes--so it is not clear whether they would have been more disruptive under such circumstances.) The students in this class also indicated, on one occasion, that they had some difficulty understanding the English of the PA announcement (some students

translated for others).

8. Absences. The problem of student absences seemed a much bigger issue in this class than that of student tardiness, though Mr. Siguieros did not seem to feel he could do much about either one. Students frequently missed class altogether. Make-ups were always given after class (usually during the nutrition break immediately following this class). On one occasion, Mr. Siguieros reprimanded the entire class for "cutting" on days when he was absent. He also reprimanded individual students if they cut more than one in a week. Students frequently entered class late, but they always had passes which Mr. Siguieros accepted without comment. He was never heard to interrupt a lesson or to reprimand a student for being late.

Summary

The story of Mr. Siguieros is repeated in the classrooms of other teachers. Furthermore, the teacher's management responsibilities go beyond the class period and include other assigned school duties, such as monitoring football games. National teachers report on the questionnaire an average work week of 51.7 hours, and the local teachers report 49 hours (see Table 18). But the immediate management problems which to some degree interrupt the time allocated for the Lesson were those embedded within the class period. The averages for the classes observed in the inner city secondary classrooms were:

3.2	discipline episodes
1.72	acknowledged interruptions
.74	students entering late

5.66	TOTAL

In addition to the above, the teacher was responsible each period for recording the absence of 30 percent of the students, having make-up available for these students when they return, and having available the necessary resources for teaching writing. Some of the pressure of interruptions on the teacher was alleviated in a few instances by a few teachers having students collect messages, read bulletins, and answer the phone. This occurred in only 8 percent of the interruptions, but it appears to be a strategy deserving wider use.

Table 51

How Did Teachers Respond in Disciplinary Episodes?

SUMMARY SHEET

Key: D = declarative; I = imperative; Q = question; AP = appellation, calling a name; MV = nonverbal; N = noise AC = action LD = "Ladies & Gentlemen" ? = Unknown

FORM:	T--whclass							T--ind.public							T--ind. prvt	T--grp. public							T--grp. prvt	T--clo. while inst.	TOTAL
	D	I	Q	LD	MV	?	N	D	I	Q	AP	MV	?	N		D	I	Q	AP	MV	AC	N			
I. STUD RESPONSE	56	81	10	34	2		6	50	38	19	22	7	1		16	12	9	10	2	2	6		4	33	431
1) clking, noise																									4
2) st sphg loudly	2							1	1																13
3) st fol. resp.	3	1	1					3	3	1													1		27
4) resp.quiet,att	4	3						2	11	3					2		1							1	12
5) not reading								1	7		1				2		1								36
6) st wrtg. too slow	8	1						7	5	8	1				3			1						2	31
7) st listen to T	2	2						8	5	8	1				2			1						2	6
II. UNTIMELY								4	2																4
8) assn. incorrect								3																	2
9) gram. con errors		1																							6
10) res. at used	1								1															1	13
11) copy, cheat									4	1															2
12) late paper, nt turned in	2		1					4	2			1			2	1								1	3
13) mv, books not in, late								1																	19
14) work habits	3																								72
III. S OFF-TASK																									22
15) off-topic	1	1						9	3	3					1			1							8
16) manners:gum,etc	4	2						9	32	3	3	5			5	1	2						2	3	10
17) rdg,wrtg off-t	1	1						2	7	2					4		2		1				1		20
18) unprepared								4		2					2										
IV. ATTENDANCE																									5
19) absenteeism								5	1	2					2										3
20) tardiness	1							6	3	4					2	1	1	2							17
V. PAST & FUTURE																									11
21) projection	3							1	1								1								43
22) reminder	1										1								1						767
VI. UNKNOWN CAUSE								1	3	1					11										
TOTAL:	92	93	12	34	2	1	6	121	129	58	38	13	1		56	16	16	16	3	2	6		9	43	

Table 52

INTERRUPTIONS AND LATE ENTERING STUDENTS

	Late Students				Bulletin		New Students	Outside Students[b]		Outside Staff[b]		Student leaves w/Pass	PA	Telephone		Alarm	Other[c]
	T[a]	S	Ave/ Day	Range/ Day	T	S		T	S	T	S			T answers	S answers		
Orozco	6	0	.35	0-2	1	0	0	11	0	8	0	0	2	0	0	0	1
Signoretto	10	0	.45	0-3	11	0	0	10	0	7	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
Ellis	6	12	1.11	0-4	1	10	0	4	10	2	2	0	0	9	0	0	4
Hayward	10	0	.67	0-2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0
Bauman	4	0	.21	0-1	1	0	0	5	0	1	0	0	0	11	0	1	6
Grove	6	1	.44	0-2	2	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	0	3	0	0	1
Merrill	18	0	.78	0-3	5	0	0	16	1	10	0	0	1	2	0	0	3
Clay	8	0	.35	0-2	4	0	0	6	0	5	0	12	1	0	0	0	1
Gordon	22	6	1.00	0-4	17	0	0	19	2	2	2	0	8	3	0	3	1
Hopkins	14	0	.64	0-3	0	0	0	6	0	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
Woodward	26	0	1.86	0-6	5	3	0	2	0	12	0	4	0	3	0	0	2
O'Neil	not checked[d]				5	2	1	7	1	1	0	0	4	3	0	0	3
Sanders	11	0	.48	0-2	3	0	2	6	0	14	0	3	2	4	1	3	3
Barnes	23	0	2.56	0-5	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	3
TOTALS	194	13	.74	0-6	59	15	6	97	14	68	4	27	22	61	1	7	30
	177				74			111		72				44			

a) T = T handles; S = S handles
b) i.e., messages, equipment delivery
c) i.e., street noise, fight in hallway
d) Journalism class--S's frequently in and out

Table 53

What is the Absenteeism in the 14 Case Study Classrooms?

TEACHER	ENROLLED	A.D.A.		
		No.	%	RANGE
Orozco	32	28.29	85.74	27-33
Siguieros	30	17.24	57.47	13-20
Ellis	23	19.40	84.34	16-21
Newman	25	16.50	65.91	8-24
Gordon	35	24.91	71.69	13-33
Grover	24	20.33	84.72	16-24
Woodward	33	26.93	81.61	24-31
O'Neil	13	8.45	65.00	8-11
Merrill	32	14.00	45.16	11-21
Hayward	14	8.07	57.64	4-10
Hopkins	25	17.05	68.20	13-21
Clay	41	28.27	65.74	24-36
Sanders	35	24.45	69.86	18-29
Barnes	19	10.33	54.39	8-15
OVERALL	27.21	18.87	31.60	

Table 54

What is the Reported Attendance in the Classrooms of National and Local Teachers?

Distribution of Classes by Class Type and Average Daily Attendance: National Sample

Class Type	Average Daily Attendance												Total # Classes	% of Total Sample
	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60		
General		1	15	53	75	74	27	1	2			1	249	53.4
Functional		1	4	6	7	5		1					24	5.2
Literature		1	1	3	1	4	2						12	2.6
Composition		8	24	26	13	4	6	1		1			83	17.8
Remedial		10	6	7	7	3							33	7.1
Bilingual		1	2	1	2	2							8	1.7
Reading	1	1	4	5	9	3							23	4.9
Other English skills			1	3	3				1				8	1.7
Other subject		1	2	3	5	9	3	3					26	5.6
Total # classes	1	24	39	107	122	104	38	6	3	1	0	1	466	
% of total sample	.2	5.2	12.7	23.0	26.2	22.3	8.2	1.3	.6	.2		.2		

Distribution of Classes by Class Type and Average Daily Attendance: Local Sample

Class Type	Average Daily Attendance (# of students)							Total	% of Total Sample
	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35		
General	1	1	3	4	9	12	4	34	55.7
Functional (journalism)			3					3	4.9
Literature					2			2	3.3
Composition		2		1		1	1	5	8.2
Remedial	1	3	1	1				6	9.8
Bilingual			1	1		3	1	6	9.8
Reading			1					1	1.6
Other subject			1	1	2			4	6.6
TOTAL	2	6	10	8	13	16	6	61	
% of Total Sample	3.3	9.8	16.4	13.1	21.3	26.2	9.8		

Table 55

What is the Reported Enrollment of National and Local Teachers

Distribution of Classes by Class Type and Number of Students Enrolled: National Sample

Class Type	Enrollment 1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	61-65	Total # Classes	% of Total Sample
General			7	24	60	92	57	10	2	1	1	1		255	52.7
Functional		1	4	4	6	6		4	1					26	5.4
Literature			1	2	1	2	3	3						12	2.5
Composition		1	10	25	30	12	5	4					1	88	18.2
Remedial		3	6	5	9	10	2	3					1	36	7.4
Bilingual			1		3	4								8	1.7
Reading	1			5	11	4	3							24	5.0
Other English skills			1	3	1	2					1			8	1.7
Other subject		1	1	1	4	7	5	6	2					27	5.6
Total # classes	1	6	31	67	125	139	75	29	5	1	2	1	2	484	
% of total sample	.2	1.2	6.4	13.8	25.8	28.7	15.5	6.0	1.0	.2	.4	.2	.4		

Distribution of Classes by Class Type and Number of Students Enrolled: Local Sample

Class Type	Enrollment (# of students) 1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	Total	% of Total Sample
General	1	1	2	1	6	6	14	4		35	56.5
Functional (journalism)			1	2						3	4.8
Literature						2				2	3.2
Composition			2				1		2	5	8.1
Remedial	1	1	1	1	2					6	9.7
Bilingual				1	1	2	2			6	9.7
Reading					1					1	1.6
Other subject			1		1	2				4	6.5
TOTAL	2	2	7	5	11	12	17	4	2	62	
% of Total Sample	3.2	3.2	11.3	8.1	17.7	19.4	27.4	6.5	3.2		

Table 56

What Resources Do Teachers Secure for Teaching Writing?

	Teacher Did Own Typing	I.W.E or Clerical Help	Room Tape Recorder	Resources For Writing: Available Dictionaries	Resources For Writing: Available Grammar Texts	Resources For Writing: Used Films	Used Library	Lined Paper Provided	Provided Ditted Guides	Sense of Limited Resources
Hopkins	X	0								?
Gordon		0								yes
Merrill	?	0	X	X	X	X		0		Some
Clay	X			X			X	X		No
Grover		0		X	X				X	
Sanders		X			X (Shortage)	X				yes
Avery	X	↓			X					no
Newman		X	X		X (Shortage)					yes
Ellis		X			X					yes
Barnes					X			X		
Woodward		X								
Siguieros										
Orozco										
Hayward		X			X			X		

VI. EDUCATION POLICIES: TEACHER AS POLICY ADVISER AND IMPLEMENTER

The previous chapters on the Lesson and the Class Period examined classroom influences on the Writing Episode which students experience in inner city secondary schools. This chapter and the one that follows examine institutional influences on the Writing Episode. In the previous chapter, the teacher was observed managing problems of discipline, attendance, resources, and interruptions. Some of these problems were governed to some degree by laws and policies at the state and local levels. Teachers in their interviews indicated that part of their teaching responsibility was the implementation of policies from the state and local levels, policies which in some cases the teachers themselves helped decide. All school finance policies were eliminated from the study. The focus of the study was curriculum in the classsroom. All policies setting formulas for school finance were eliminated from the study. The focus of the study was curriculum in the classroom.

The data for our study of policy were collected in three stages: (1) interviews of 18 policy makers on six questions related to policy matters affecting writing instruction, (2) interviews of six teachers from four of the five schools on the six questions and on their perceptions of the roles as policy advisers and implementers, and (3) interviews with 11 policy makers on the nature of specific policies identified in the previous 24 interviews.

The interviews in the first two stages had the following six questions:

1. Writing Goals: e.g. "Are there any school goals or objectives for writing?" "What things do you consider when you set up goals for students in writing?"

2. Writing Problems: e.g. "What do you see as the biggest problem that students in the district have with writing?" "What is the cause of the problem?"

3. Approaches to Teaching Writing: e.g. "What if you wanted to try something new or innovative in writing for a semester; what would you have to do?"

4. Evaluation: e.g. "Is there such a thing as school-wide testing for writing proficiency?"

5. Personnel: e.g. "Do you play a role in selecting English teachers?"

6. Students: e.g. "How are students selected and assigned to English classes? That is, how is it determined which students get into which classes?"

We then let specific policy issues surface in the course of the interviews. When such issues did come up, we probed further; in those interviews in which it looked as though specific policy would not get mentioned, we did initiate ideas on certain ones, then left it to the interviewees to carry on discussion.

The 35 people who were interviewed were as follows:

Stage One:

State Level

Gerald Merrileiser*

District Level

Michael Johnson
Helen Maxwell
Diane Ingles
Dorothy Morris

School Level

Principals

Larry Thomas, Hudson High
Jane Anderson, Mapleton High
Kenneth Carlyle, Mosswood High
Birdette Ross, Riverview Jr. High
Russell Tsin, Mapleton Tech

Instructional Assistant Principals (IAP's)

Bob Underwood, Hudson High
Alice Thompson, Mosswood High
Patricia Cookson, Riverview Jr. High

English Department Chairs (Teachers)

Edith Sanders, Hudson High
Caroline Newman, Mosswood High
Dennis Gordon, Riverview Jr. High

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* Names of all schools, school districts, students and teachers have been changed to preserve anonymity.

Title I Coordinators

Ellen Franklin, Mosswood High
Lisa Holloway, Riverview Jr. High

STAGE TWO:

Case Study Teachers

William O'Neil
James Merrill
George Woodward
Jeannette Grover
Keith Hayward
Doris Ellis

STAGE THREE

During the interviews in Stage One, we identified the five major policy areas emerging from the data. During the Stage Two interviews with the six teachers, if these five policy areas were not mentioned by the teacher informant, then the following question was asked: Is policy X an important influence on writing instruction? After the completion of Stages One and Two, the following group of informants were scheduled for phone interviews to collect specific information about each of the five major policy areas.

Frederick Wesley, Coordinator, Certificated Personnel Mapleton Unified School District

David Green, Educational Testing Service

Frank Eagleton, Executive Director, Mapleton Education Association

Russell Myers, Supervisor of Teacher Education, UC Berkeley

John Kirkwood, Superintendent of Schools, Mapleton County

Henry Clark, Mapleton Unified School District Administrative Research Consultant

Denise Lefler, Career Planning and Placement Center, UC Berkeley

John Trent, State Department of Education

Alice Kelsey, Community Chairperson, Proficiency Committee, Mapleton Unified School District

Dan Lewis, Lecturer, Education and Law, UC Berkeley

Margaret Drucker, State Department of Education

The 35 informants on institutional policies influencing writing episodes in classrooms held nine roles in education: state administrator (3), county office administrator (1), district office administrator (5), school site administrator (10), department chair and teacher (3), teacher (6), testing agency (1), bargaining agent representative for teachers (1), university personnel involved in teacher preparation and placement (3), and parent leader of a district curriculum committee (1). The lines of policy influence which were examined are shown in Figure 9.

After the collection of data in Stage Three, the comments from the interviews were organized around two questions which were of primary concern to the informants: (1) who required us to do this particular thing and (2) did we do this thing that is required? The first question focuses on governance--whether educators at the various levels of governance -- state, local district, and school -- interact on policy decisions. The second question focuses on implementation--whether policies and classroom practices are loosely or tightly coupled. The concept of coupling, borrowed from research on organizational structure, was used to divide the five major policies into two groups, loosely and tightly coupled. In this study, loosely coupled means that within the given area of policy, mandates from an upper level of governance are not clearly evident in teacher practice. Tightly coupled means the policies are apparent in teacher practice.

A. GOVERNANCE: WHO SAYS

Each of the five policies reported to have an important influence on the writing episode in the classrooms of inner city secondary schools appeared in various forms at the state, local district, and classroom level. Tightly coupled policies tended to have at the classroom level forms which matched those at at upper level. Loosely coupled policies tended to have at the classroom level forms which did not appear at upper levels of governance. Some of the policies also had forms which appeared at the governance levels of the county (a multi-district entity in California, similar to New York State's Board of Cooperative Educational Services), the school, and the subject matter department within the school. The various levels of governance for each of the five areas of policy are

shown in Figure 8.

The first governance issue was whether classroom teachers participated at each level of governance in the shaping of each of the five non-financial policies. Each of the levels of governance tended to have its particular form of participation. At the state level, participation tended to take place through organizations, either curriculum organizations (CO) or bargaining agent organizations such as the AFT and the NEA (BA). At the district level, participation tended to take place through teachers who acted as school site representatives or grade level and subject matter representatives (R). The work of the representatives was usually communicated to other teachers through written documents. At the school site level, if teachers participated in the shaping of a school policy, they did so directly in committees, in faculty meetings, and in personal meetings with school site policy makers (D). In each instance, the kind of participation was confirmed through interviews and written documents. Each level of governance was coded for the type of participation when the participation occurred, either CO (Curriculum Organization), BA (Bargaining Agent), R (teacher representative), D (direct participation occurred), and ? (participation undetermined):

1. Policy on curriculum: those policies that mandate or guide with varying degrees of specificity, the content, goals and expectations of secondary school English classes.

State Legislature	California Education Code, Section 51220, Areas of Study, Grades 7-12	CO/BA
State Board	English Language Framework	CO
State Department of Education	Handbook for Planning an Effective Writing Program	CO
County	County Course of Study	?
District	Language Arts Curriculum Guide (Grade Level Learning Expectations and Activities Supplement from Secondary English/Reading Technical Task Team)	R
	Mapleton Unified School District Course Outlines	R
	English/Reading Matrix for Mapleton Schools, 9-12	R
School	Informal School Policy (unwritten); Mapleton High, English Class Guidelines	D

2. Policy on testing: those policies that prescribe the procedures and goals for evaluating students' proficiencies in basic language skills and minimum language competencies and that outline the language skills and competencies that are to be tested.

State Legislature	California Education Code Sections 51215, 51216, 51217	BA
	California Education Code, Sections 60, 600 FF	BA
State Board State Department of Education	California Assessment Program (CAP)	?
District	Proficiency Standards, M.U.S.D.	R
	High School Graduation Proficiency Test	?
	Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS)	?

School	Miscellaneous Tests (individual teachers)	D

3. Policy on personnel, those policies that address preparation, licensing, and inservice training of English teachers and hiring.

State

Hiring Policy	California Education Code Section 41903 (number of teachers hired by dist)	BA
Licensing Policy	California Education Code, Sections 44225, 44227 (re Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing), Teacher Preparation and Licensing, Scope and Content Statement for English, Hart Bill	CD/BA
Evaluation Policy	Stull Bill, Article II	BA
District	Personnel Policies Inservice Policies	BA R
School		2

4. Policy on discipline and attendance: those policies that present formulas for counting enrollment and attendance, and those that address truancy (non-attendance) and discipline.

State	Education Code Sections 48900, 48903, 48903.5, 48904.5, 48905, 48914 48915, 48922, and adds sections 48213, 48214, 48432.5, 48903.3, 35291 48909, 48904, adds Sections 48900, 48900.2, 48901, 48903, 48903.5, 48903.6, 48904, 48904.5, 48905	BA
District	Administrative Bulletin 6010, Student Conduct and Disciplinary Action Procedures (1979)	R
	M.U.S.D. District Uniform Discipline Policy (1980)	R
	Operation Stay In School (1981)	R
	Article 15, Class Size, Agreement between M.U.S.D. and Mapleton Education Association (1980-83)	BA
School	Lists of school rules on behavior and attendance	D

Of the five major policy areas, tracing the policies on discipline and attendance proved to be the most difficult. First, discipline and attendance policies could not be separated. One of the most frequent discipline problems was continuous absence from school, and many state and local regulations combined discipline and attendance policies. Second, unlike most of the other policy areas, discipline policies were frequently shaped by policies at the Federal level, the U.S. Supreme Court rulings on student rights being one example. (Personnel policies were also frequently shaped by federal policies, affirmative action requirements for federal funding being one example.) Third, the main discipline and attendance policies were so numerous that only a few can be listed here.

5. The Evaluation and Planning Policies of Title I, was a federal program that brings to a school Title I policies regarding curriculum, instruction, evaluation, and target student population.

State / District / School	Guidelines / Plans/Proposals	BA / R / D
State	Guidelines	BA
District	Plans/Proposals	R
School		2

Even though all the informants agreed on which non-financial policies were the most influential in writing instruction, many of the informants disagreed or were uncertain about teacher participation in the shaping of all five policies. According to written documents, teachers did participate in the development of all five of the major policies at most levels of governance through either curriculum organizations (CO), bargaining agents (BA), representatives of grade levels, subject matter, or schools (R), or direct participation (D). The exceptions were county office policies on curriculum, some of the state and district testing and assessment policies, and the school site policies on Title I.

The teachers were sometimes uninformed about how policies were developed and would place the responsibility for a policy at the wrong level of governance. For instance, two teacher informants said that the state required writing samples to measure minimum competency in writing. However, the state law only required that local districts adopt some kind of minimum competency test for writing. The district decided to include two writing samples as part of the test, and this district decision involved a large district committee with teacher representatives from every secondary school in the district. A similar problem occurred among administrator informants. One administrator placed the responsibility for poor teacher evaluation on the state law. However, the present law was initiated by a state organization to which the administrator belonged. It was not uncommon to find the members of one level of governance blaming another level of governance for a policy which the members of first level of governance reportedly helped create.

One reason for this contradiction might be the problematic character of representation (R) at various levels of governance. The written documents listed individuals as representatives, but, in fact, they might have been playing other roles. Bargaining agents (BA) and curriculum organizations (CO) have written procedures for electing officers and implementing policy, and the names of these organizations in the written documents on policy development suggest that these policies of representation have been followed. But teachers and administrators who were labeled in reports

as representatives of a grade level, district, subject matter or school were sometimes, in fact, acting as consultants expressing their personal views, not acting as representatives of a group. In such a situation, instead of higher levels of governance being brought into line with attitudes at the lower level, a higher level of governance was sometimes used by individuals to get their lower level of governance to do what they wanted done. For example, some informants acknowledged that they helped write writing goals at the district level and that they were now using these district goals in order to get teachers at the school site level to teach more writing.

In the area of personnel decisions, the interviews showed widely different opinions about who decided what. While the district selects the "pool" of teachers available for hiring, Ms. Morris said that the district does not actually hire teachers; they only recommend candidates to principals, who make the final decisions. Yet, some school administrators only saw these recommendations as "what the district deals them," (Mr. Underwood) or "parcels out" (Mr. Thomas). However, according to Ms. Morris, the school principal had the right to refuse the district's recommendations. Indeed, this seemed to happen. Ms. Morris criticized those principals who employed teachers "out of softheartedness," those teachers who come and say, "I have a family to feed and my husband's out of work; see what you can do for me." She said, "This kind of thing shouldn't happen. If it happens once a year, it's too much."

Ms. Newman, an English Department Chair, saw similar problems in teacher selection. At Mosswood High this year, she said, there were five new teachers in the English department, none of whom she knew of before this semester. She thought not one of them had any knowledge of teaching writing. She thought that the principal had a choice of teachers only from a small pool offered by the district and that no attempt was made to find, from this pool, teachers who knew writing. Said Ms. Sanders, another English Department Chair, out of the five teachers in her school's English Department, three were not English majors.

Ms. Morris told us that if a school were large enough to have an English Department head, then most schools would involve the department head in hiring for a new English teacher. Yet on the school level, among the department heads we spoke to, this was not the case. In these schools, the hiring policy did not include consultation with subject matter department heads. At Mosswood High, Ms. Newman said that she was

not part of the hiring process, that at her school she could not make suggestions for selection of teachers, cannot "intrude" in any way in hiring. However, she would like to change this, and make some background in writing a necessity for hiring new English teachers. At Hudson High, Ms. Sanders said that she does not select English teachers, that the IAP does. And at Riverview Jr. High, Mr. Gordon said that he played no role in selecting English teachers; the principal did it. While he felt he could suggest his attending the hiring interviews, he didn't know how the school administration would receive the suggestion. Because he did not participate in hiring, he felt teachers like himself were put into "frustrating positions." For example, he became unhappy when a teacher who everyone knew was good was not re-hired because "she doesn't have the right papers in the right folders and they bring in someone new." This had happened in his school. We asked if there was anything he could do about the situation, and he said, in the case of this one teacher, the other teachers could put notices in the bulletin: "Ms. X is available for tutoring. Call on her." In this way, the teachers have slowly getting her back into the school. Also, when Mr. Gordon needed a substitute, he had the office specifically call for this teacher to substitute for him.

In summary, five non-financial policy areas are believed to have an important influence on the teaching of writing in inner city secondary schools--curriculum, testing, personnel, discipline and attendance, and Title I planning and evaluation policies. All informants expected teachers to play some kind of advisory role in the development of policies in each of the five areas. Teachers did have an opportunity to participate at many levels of governance in the development of policies, but teachers were sometimes uninformed about how policies are made and how policies can be changed. Many informants disagreed about how personnel decisions were made.

B. IMPLEMENTATION: IS IT DONE?

The teacher is also an implementer of school policy, but how policies are implemented varies from one policy to another. The question is are policy and implementation tightly or loosely coupled. In proficiency testing, Title I, and discipline and attendance, policy and implementation appear to be tightly coupled, and in curriculum content and some personnel policies, policy and implementation appear to be loosely coupled.

HIGHLY COUPLED POLICY AND PRACTICE

Testing

The school district proficiency test was divided into three subtests of reading, mathematics, and writing. The writing test was divided into three parts: a) written expression (a multiple choice test on capitalization, syntax, punctuation, grammar, and spelling), b) writing sample A (requiring an explanation or description of something), and c) writing sample B (requiring the writing of a business letter). Students needed to pass only two out of these three parts to be deemed proficient in writing.

The district proficiency test was a result of a law passed by the California Legislature. The California Education Code mandates that the governing board of each school district "adopt standards of proficiency in basic skills for pupils attending school within its school district." It further states that the standards are to include reading comprehension, writing, and computation skills "necessary to success in school and life experience." These standards of proficiency are to be adopted "with the active involvement of parents broadly reflective of the socioeconomic composition of the district," and of administrators, teachers, and counselors, and pupils. The Code specifies, also, that tests are to be given at least once during the seventh through ninth grade and at least twice during the tenth though eleventh grade. If students do not demonstrate "sufficient progress toward mastery of basic skills," the code mandates that they be provided with instruction.

All policy informants agreed that the policy on proficiency testing had had direct and immediate effects on the classrooms, producing an increased interest in the teaching and learning of written expression. But many informants also commented on the negative effects of emphasizing minimums and of using the test to group students into achievement tracks.

Mr. Meiser, State Department of Education Consultant, believed that while the test creates interest in some students who know they are going to pass it to graduate, the test was given so often that it could be memorized. (Some students, he said, took it twelve times.) Ms. Maxwell, Reading/Language Arts Consultant for the M.U.S.D. Division of Learning, said we must go beyond the minimum when we set standards for proficiency. "Most people," she said, "recognize that minimums are minimums and they want their kids to do better than that--but it's safer not to."

The teachers expressed criticism of the emphasis on minimums. Ms. Newman, for example, feeling bound to teach the skills assessed by the proficiency exam, found herself spending time teaching her students how to write checks--and she did not like doing this. Mr. Gordon found the proficiency tests took an inordinate amount of time, with students being taken out of class. But, to a limited degree, these tests influenced what he teaches; for example, he takes time to teach his students how to write a business letter because it is a proficiency test item.

Said Mr. O'Neil, a classroom teacher, "I think it's (the exam) a good idea but they're way too easy. The writing sample is the one point where students have the most trouble, and it's not that difficult." And, on this line, Mr. Thomas adds, "It's quite minimal. I wouldn't consider that test is teaching writing; it's teaching minimals." Likewise, Ms. Franklin, Title I Coordinator at Mosswood High, saw the concern with students passing the proficiency tests as a concern with minimums, but that "there are people on the staff who don't want to give up at that level, who want to bring the students to a higher level, a more sophisticated level."

Even though many criticized the standards, these standards proved to be above the skill levels of many students. According to Ms. Franklin, 500 of the 600 incoming tenth graders at Mosswood High School had failed proficiency tests in the ninth grade and "it's a major task to help these kids pass, to write a simple business letter or a simple essay." The schools handled this problem differently. For example, Mr. Thomas said that Hudson High did not teach how to take the proficiency exam unless they have a student who has failed it the first time around. "Then we give him a specific class in proficiencies. They'll learn writing and math proficiency. In essence, what we're teaching them is rote writing: how to 'Put Together a Paragraph.'"

Despite all the criticism, the testing program was supported by individuals and implemented through school site procedures. At Hudson High the weekly lesson plan had in it the question "What proficiencies will you cover?" At one high school, one informant (Ms. Anderson) said, "Now the writing goals are such that all students will learn to write business letters, paragraphs, themes. We won't be graduating functional illiterates any more." On the teacher questionnaire, local case study teachers rated "competency standards and test" as the greatest resource for their effectiveness in teaching writing. In contrast to this response, teachers in the national sample reported that

competencies were of little influence on their effectiveness.

Some policy informants also commented on the possible negative effect of using proficiency testing to track students by achievement groups. At one high school, a "seven" on the district proficiency test went into a Basics Class, "nine" and "ten and above" went into one of two other higher level classes. All of these classes were part of the regular English curriculum. Further, all students who did not pass the proficiency test were pulled out of other electives to be in the Basics Class. And while the district said to give the proficiency test three times a year, Ms. Anderson, Principal at Mapleton High School, gave it more times so that her students would be more likely to pass it. One informant suggested that the schools were so inclined toward grouping, given the large numbers in most high schools, that any test available would eventually end up being used to schedule students into classes. Some informants raised the question of whether some students in different groups might not profit from being in the same writing class. In other words, would students at the lower levels of competency benefit from classroom interchange with students of higher competency levels? Second, would students at higher levels benefit from such an interchange.

Title I

Most informants agreed that the guidelines for Title I had a direct and immediate impact on the teaching of writing in the district's inner city classrooms. The informants reported that the classes under Title I programs had smaller enrollments and more resources, including aides and staff development programs. In general, teachers and administrators had positive attitudes toward the Title I program.

The major area of dispute generated by Title I programs was evaluation. One Title I coordinator praised the Title I emphasis on evaluation because the data from evaluation could be used to demonstrate learning needs of students, thereby forcing the district and Title I programs to give priority to such problem areas as writing. This particular coordinator worked in a school in which 1,500 out of 1,800 students were in the Title I program.

Another Title I coordinator was less positive about the evaluations. She noted that the evaluations of writing primarily emphasized small, discrete skills which could easily be tested in multiple choice tests, assembled in computer readouts, and checked by a review

team:

> People try to isolate what needs to be learned, try to separate it further by grade; then teachers isolate them; then students isolate them--and nobody ever puts it all together.

She described what happened when the Monitor and Review Team (MAR) came to the school site to determine whether the needs identified in the computer readout were being met:

> They look at whether you're going by all the rules. It's time consuming--a lot of red tape that takes away from really teaching. This whole profile garbage (i.e. profiles of teaching objectives)--I try to do it pretty well. It just takes away (from teaching) especially when they tell you to do things that are hurting kids, like making skills...they push you into a direction. I saw a couple of teachers two days before the MAR team came, running to get the skill books, the little workbooks, because they thought that was the only way they were going to look good for the MAR team--especially when the Mapleton team came in and told us that we were supposed to be more skill-oriented.

DISCIPLINE AND ATTENDANCE

All informants agreed that discipline and attendance policies had direct and immediate effects on the classroom. The impact of discipline and attendance on the writing episode began with the district's class size policy which was part of the negotiated contract between the teacher bargaining agent and the school district.

The agreement between the M.U.S.D. and the Mapleton Education Association (M.E.A.) stated that the maximum secondary English class size for 1980-81 was to be 35, for 1981-82, 33 (maximums are not covered in the Education Code). According to Frank Eagleton, M.E.A. Executive Director, while there was no minimum class size requirement that came from M.E.A., the district had a minimum that they established for their own use. When we talked to Mr. Henry Clark of the M.U.S.D., however, he told us that there is no district policy on minimum class size. In fact, he said, at the higher levels, when senior year secondary school classes are often electives, class size could get below ten.

depending upon who qualifies for or wants to take a particular class.

The State Department of Education's Gerald Merrilleiser put his finger on a problem: "If you're a teacher pressed to the wall, facing 200 kids a day, you have them write now and then, short answers, or a once-a-year term paper, and call that your writing program." Mr. Merrilleiser also pointed out, however, that this picture was changing: more teachers were seeing the drawbacks of assessing writing on the basis of short answers and the necessity of students' doing a great deal of writing throughout the year. From a different point of view, Ellen Franklin, Title I Coordinator at Mcsswood High, saw the problem of student/teacher ratio related to that of teacher competency: "If a teacher constantly avoids the issue of writing, it doesn't matter how many kids she might have in a classroom." But several informants suggested that even if all English teachers were competent to teach writing, there were not enough English teachers to handle the student writing problem satisfactorily. Lis Holloway, Title I Coordinator at Riverview Jr. High stated that (echoing Mr. Merrilleiser) it was simply not possible for one person to deal with five classes of thirty students each and still do an effective job teaching writing. Other teachers and administrators said they would like to see smaller classes. Said Teacher Edith Sanders, "I like having a class size limit, especially my advanced classes. No more than 30. I can tolerate 25...because grading compositions is quite difficult if you (want to) do a decent job."

The observations suggest that enrollment and attendance are substantially different figures. In the fourteen case study classrooms, for instance, the average enrollment was 27.8, and the average daily attendance was 18.87 (see Table 53, Chapter V). Absent students, however, do not reduce the class load because discipline and attendance laws required that teachers provide make-up for students with excused absences. Therefore, the student who was absent on one day could become an added make-up responsibility for the teacher the next day.

One district attempted to avoid the make-up problem by reducing the unit credit of absent students and not giving make-up. The State Attorney General has ruled that this policy is invalid under state law concerning truancy, but the Attorney General said that absences could be part of the calculation of course grades. But this does not escape the make-up problem because state law specifies:

> A suspended pupil shall be allowed to complete all assignments and tests missed during the suspension which can be reasonably provided and, upon satisfactory completion, shall be given full credit therefor.

Thus, in present state law suspended students must be given make-up. Because the district did not wish to require make-up for suspended students and deny make-up to students who were absent for other reasons, all teachers were required to give make-up to all students with excused absences. On the average, if half of the students absent on one day were to return to class the next day, the teacher, after the first day of school, would have four students per class period or approximately 20 students per day (5 classes per day) for whom the teacher must provide make-up work. These 20 students would be equivalent to a full class since the overall average attendance per class is 18.87. It appears, state policies on attendance have had an immediate and direct impact on the fourteen classrooms observed.

The problem of chronic absences and the lack of a solution was probably best summarized by Mr. Hayward, a classroom teacher:

> That's a big bother. I fight that out with the students, and I'm still struggling as to what the best way to handle that...I think calling up the parents is pretty important. I don't use it as much as I could. And I think you've got to get after them, let them know how important it is, let them know what the values are. That's a big constraint, the fact that they're absent. Three days a week, so many of them. I don't know if I should put more teeth into my threats, that's another approach, just fail them. But then I don't want to do that...I'm still struggling with that one.

Another indication of the tightly coupled nature of policies and practices in discipline and attendance is the strict code followed by schools in suspensions:

Discipline and Attendance Policy
Offenses

State	District
Damage to School Property	Vandalism (C)*
	Arson (C)
Physical Injury	Fighting (B)
	Hazing (B)
	Battery (C)
	Assault (C)
Possession or sale of firearm, knife, explosive or other dangerous object	Possession of weapon (C)
Possession or use of tobacco	Smoking or possession of cigarettes (B)
Possession or sale of any controlled substance, alcoholic beverage, or intoxicant of any kind	Possession of drugs and/or drinking alcohol (C)
	Under the influence of drugs (C)
	Sale of drugs (C)
Obscene act or habitual profanity	Habitual profanity (E) or vulgarity
Disruptive of school activities or willful defiance of authority of supervisors, teachers, administrators	Cutting Class (A)
	Disruption of Class (A)
	Disrespect to staff members (A)
	Disrespect to other students (A)
	Gambling (B)
	Defiance of Authority (B)
	Extortion (C)
	Stealing (C)

* The district further categorizes offenses by severity of punishment, A (usually parent/teacher conference for first time offenses) through C (5-day suspension, referral to Police Department, referral to District Discipline Hearing Panel).

Current law provided that a teacher could suspend a pupil from his or her class for any of the acts specified in law, for the day of the suspension and the following day. The teacher could also recommend to the principal that the student be suspended or expelled from school. The teacher also had the responsibility to contact the student's parents. No suspensions were observed or reported in the fourteen case study classrooms.

In summary, in the areas of testing, Title I, and discipline and attendance, policies and practices showed evidence of being tightly coupled. The specifics of the policy could be observed in the events which occurred in the classroom.

LOOSELY COUPLED POLICY AND PRACTICE

Curriculum

The following sample curriculum policies on paragraphing show that each level of governance attempts to define curriculum goals in its own way:

Samples from Curriculum Policy:
State Level to School Level
General to Specific

State: Give shape to ideas (form)

County: Use paragraphs to convey major ideas in stories and reports

District: Write a specific, cohesive topic sentence and develop a paragraph (grade 7)

Demonstrate knowledge of paragraph structure by composing a paragraph containing a topic sentence, supporting statements, and a conclusion (grade 10)

Activities-Supplement: Students should be able to write three or four sentences expressing feelings, describing events or stating an opinion...Simple, compound, and complex sentences will occur...(this is followed by specific assignment suggestions).

School:

1. Fundamental paragraph construction (emphasis first nine weeks). (Tenth Grade).
   a. Each student will write a 100-word paragraph per week.
   b. Review and practice topic sentence/thesis statement.

c. Consideration of general to specific development, especially use of concrete, specific examples in supporting sentences.

d. Practice exercises based on organization and unity.

e. Importance of strong concluding sentence(s).

The loosely coupled quality of curriculum policies and practice was reiterated frequently by most informants. At Mosswood High, Principal Carlyle spoke of an emphasis on writing across the curriculum, including math and PE classes, echoing Ms. Maxwell's comment about this being an "innovation" for the district. However, during our interview with Mosswood's Ms. Newman, we learned that, while other courses are supposed to include writing, this is merely a suggestion from the principal which, she feels, not many teachers follow. But certain courses were designed to focus on writing and meet students' writing needs, courses "created with the sanction of the district" such as creative writing and journalism. Said Mr. Carlyle

> We probably have more writing programs at Mosswood High in the last five years than in the whole history of the school--addressing the gamut of students from the gifted to those below the fiftieth percentile and special ed students.

Principal Anderson said that at Mapleton High School all the classes were supposed to focus on writing, but social studies and English did so more than other disciplines. She said that she would like to see writing in every class made a school goal. "The only thing is, teachers don't want you to take any more time from their already short periods." But next year, she said, she is going to try to do away with the twenty-minute nutrition break, and turn it into a writing period, though she thought this would meet with resistance because "kids use this time to read newspapers and go to the restroom"--which she did not think they needed to do for twenty minutes in the morning.

Ms. Cookson, Ms. Ross's IAP, cast a slightly different light on the school's writing policy: "All classes are supposed to deal with writing; whether they do it or not is a different story." Ms. Cookson also mentioned the Title I requirement of addressing both oral and written language as an important component of the school's policy on writing, given the fact that a large proportion of the student body was affected by the Title Ibody was affected by the Title I program. No one else whom we spoke to mentioned Title I as affecting school writing policy.

Principal Thomas spoke of Hudson High's "Action Plan" for this year and next, which will elevate writing to the number one priority through all classes and content areas. ("Some of the best writing in the school," he said, "is coming from a social studies seminar, which is eighty percent writing.) He said they were not trying to push twenty-page essays, but short paragraph answers, full sentences, and fewer fill-in-the-blanks. Yet this across-the-curriculum emphasis on writing had no specific requirements, nothing formally set down. Hudson High's Ms. Sanders also told us that there was no written plan: In contrast, each teacher, she said, did what she or he wanted. (Larry Thomas said that he had "forbidden" one teacher from using fill-in-the-blank dittos.)

While Larry Thomas mentioned actual samples of student papers as the best evidence to draw on to support the emphasis on writing in his curriculum (evidence that told him that students need to practice "thinking things through," thinking and developing ideas about a subject), his IAP, Mr. Underwood, said the school's major concern was to have students pass the writing proficiency test. Said Mr. Underwood, the proficiency test gave students a concrete goal -- "otherwise they see no reason to learn how to write a letter or a paragraph." He did not mention the students' classwork or their ability to "think." He did, however, say that in all classes now, "writing is the number one thing."

Again, the teachers we interviewed saw school curriculum policy from a slightly different perspective. Ms. Newman said that while teachers were required to teach the skills tested by the proficiency exam, she did not like doing this. She said she found herself teaching students how to write checks or letters to the editor-- specific tasks, but not the more abstract principles that they exemplify. This bothered her, but she said there was nothing she could do about it. In spite of this,

she felt that there were not really any policies preventing her from doing things she liked inside the classroom. She said that, after content and goals were established by the department, each teacher was free to present material as he or she wanted.

Mr. Gordon at Riverview Jr. High said much the same thing. He said that the principal and IAP "don't particularly tell him what to teach." Although they might say things such as "we want to stress writing," he was not accountable to the school administration for what he did in writing instruction. "If there was accountability, then I would see some heads roll. But I don't; I never have seen one roll." We probed him on this matter: "If you weren't teaching writing, would anyone know about it?" He replied, "Maybe some parents would know." So, although he submitted a lesson plan in which he told what writing he wanted to cover, the administration did not know whether he did the things he listed. He said that, theoretically, he could submit a lesson plan with no writing mentioned, and "today, 1981, nobody would say a word probably, unless someone came in and monitored." This, apparently, did not occur. Ms. Newman, too, saw and absence of accountability for writing instruction. "There's none," she said.

Mr. Gordon, echoing IAP Cookson's comment about policy being one thing, but classroom implementation being another, said he would like to see more writing, more practice, especially in other classes, like science classes. When asked if there were anything he could do about this, he said that he had spoken at faculty meetings, pointing out the kinds of things the students should accomplish. "Faculty seems interested; no one's mentioned this to them before. That is, faculty have been told to include writing in their courses, but have not been too exposed to how to accomplish it."

Teacher William O'Neil at Hudson High reinforced these observations on the discrepancy between policy and classroom reality: "Theoretically," he said, "they're [students] all supposed to come in from a feeder class and be prepared with the basics, but it doesn't work that way. I end up having to work with students. But even when they come in prepared, they still need work, and most of it is they need to write a lot."

Mapleton High was the one school that showed us written guidelines for each English class. Based on

district guidelines, these were somewhat prescriptive, specifying, for example, the number of paragraphs a student was to write each week and the number of words these paragraphs were to contain. The purpose of these guidelines was to establish "instructional unity within the department." The guidelines acknowledge, however, individual differences among teachers and students: "Each teacher will stress different types and styles of writing...;" "The amount of study of rules should be determined by the errors made by students in their own writing and speaking...."

Another indication of the loosely coupled quality of the system was the way the system responded to innovation. Except for budget constraints, the system was very flexible. Mr. Thomas reported that the district was very flexible and easily able to adopt new courses: "Just put a district number on a course and they don't care." Mr. Underwood, Instructional Assistant Principal at the same school, was a bit more cautious, though still optimistic about innovation:

> You have to be careful that if you create a single period offering you get enough students for it. You can only carry so many of these classes with fewer than 25 students and students don't have leeway to take a special class if they still have other requirements. Still, you can do a lot of innovation under a title and still have it satisfy graduation requirements. Of course the counselors might present a problem--they have to keep track of it all.

But Mr. Underwood would want to see course outlines, books, objectives--to prevent what he calls the "phenomenon of the early 70's" when teachers taught "almost anything" and "the kids got cheated." He concluded that there were many choices for teachers to do what they wanted, to approach subjects their way. But he said, "If there's a problem at Hudson High it's that often teachers want to create courses for the top students--maybe 70 students in the whole school, the cream. They must be careful not to let this happen."

Ms. Cookson, Instructional Assistant Principal at Riverview Junior High School, saw innovation in much the same way Mr. Underwood did. Again, it was not district curruculum policy that would stand in the way of something new. She stated:

> The only problems in implementing an innovative course would be in not having enough staff--they (the district) would cut back on teachers, but at the same time the teachers' contract calls for lessening class size--it's all rather interesting.

One reason given for the loose coupling of practice to policy in writing is the fact that among the existing curriculum policies at the various levels, writing policies tend to be of comparatively recent origin. The state department has had, for many years, a language framework focusing on reading. The state department's handbook on writing programs was issued for the first time in February 1982, not being preceded by any similar publication. Both teachers and administrators at the school site described the concern with writing across the curriculum as a new direction. One reason given for the fairly recent districtwide emphasis on writing was that writing was now being assessed in the school district as part of the mandated proficiency examination required for graduation from high school. Despite the loose coupling of curriculum policy and practice, most teachers believed that basic skills, basic mechanics, and spelling, the kinds of assignments they gave most frequently, were, in fact, the kinds of assignments which most frequently fulfilled the demands of state goals in curriculum (see Table 57). One question is what the terms of various goals and objectives meant to the teachers. The comments on the next page show the wide range of terms and teaching approaches used to describe whaqt is meant by "clarity of thought" and l"meant by "clarity of thought" and the "writing process," both identified as state goals in the writing handbook. The fact that the terminology of writing goals and approaches appears to mean different things to different teachers may account for some part of the loosely coupled nature of curriculum policy and practice.

PERSONNEL POLICY

Most informants, teachers and administrators alike, felt that personnel policies were not achieving their stated goals. The following comments by Ms. Grover, Mapleton Tech teacher, illustrate the general problem of quality:

> I think teaching and administration and supervision of teachers needs to be looked

Assignments and Practices Used to Teach "the writing process"

This goal received the second highest rating of emphasis by the 14 case study teachers, with a mean = 3.64 (where 1 = no emphasis and 4 = great emphasis).

9TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH: Mr. D. Gordon

Lots of prewriting exercises; students always have a chance to rewrite; sometimes they are required to write successive drafts; students often read and respond to one another's papers.

9TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH: Ms. Joan Hopkins

(Hard to seperate out - it's involved in assignments for the whole year) I start with paragraph form; then I teach students to bring themselves into their writing (so someone can sense the whole person through their style); then we move on to essay writing.

10TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH (REMEDIAL): Ms. D. Ellis

I define the writing process as thinking clearly through your thoughts before starting to write. I teach it by asking students to write legibly. Ideas should be made clear to the reader (easily understood). Students write in complete sentences doing examples from their grammar text. They respond in paragraph form to questions in grammar book.

10TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH (ADVANCED): Ms. C. Newman

I emphasize students must know their purpose for writing; flow from that. I always talk with students about longer assignments and about how they can respond; also, I write detailed comments on students' papers.

11-12TH BASIC COMPOSITION: Mr. J Merrill

The first half of the semester I teach them the forms and types of writing. In the second half of the semester, they write and rewrite until their papers are perfect.

11-12TH BASIC COMPOSITION: Mr. F. Clay

The class is organized as a writing workshop, and students are given all the time they need to work on assignments. I encourage them to rewrite whenever necessary to improve their work.

12TH GRADE BASIC ENGLISH: Mr. E. Hayward

Anything beyond a few sentences always requires a first and second draft - autobiography, response to movies, minimystery.

12TH GRADE BASIC ENGLISH: Ms. M. Barnes

I always spend at least one class period, sometimes more, talking with students about the topic; then I keep working with them individually as they write; some of them struggle just to get out words in a list; after they have written one draft I talk with them about it, reading aloud sentences that are not clear and that need revision.

Assignments and Practices Used to Teach "clarity of thought"

This goal received the highest rating of emphasis by the 14 case study teachers, with a mean = 3.79 (where 1 = no emphasis and 4 = great emphasis).

9TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH: Mr. D. Gordon

Students may read a story and imitate the prose style; also I write on their papers "Does this make sense?" "Is this clear?" Students may write taking a side on a controversial issue. For example, they wrote a letter to the principal on litter at the school (after brainstorming pro and con sides to the issue). I also choose writing topics students can relate to (eg. childhood memories) -- topics that can be universally understood by all.

9TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH: Ms. Joan Hopkins

I tell students to read over their papers before turning them in, checking to make sure all sentences are complete and clear and that there are no mistakes.

10TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH (REMEDIAL): Ms. D. Ellis

Every student's paper is read by 1 or 2 other students; writers are asked to check punctuation and capitalization before passing in papers, and to make sure sentences are clear.

10TH GRADE GENERAL ENGLISH (ADVANCED): Ms. C. Newman

I give students a chance to revise any writing assignment; twice weekly journal writing is done for fluency; discussions of topics precede all longer writing assignments.

11-12TH BASIC COMPOSITION: Mr. J. Merrill

I tell students they must be clear and precise; they do exercises in the dictionary and thesaurus. I also tell them to write about their own experiences, because they write best about what they know. They must also support all they put into writing.

11-12TH BASIC COMPOSITION: Mr. F. Clay

I often talk to students about their papers and read examples of clearly written papers to the class. I often begin the period talking about topics related to the assignment they are working on or other topics of interest, to let them hear English well spoken. The "golden tones" can be a valuable model.

12TH GRADE BASIC ENGLISH: Mr. E. Hayward

The sentence is the basic unit of thought, so I make students write short clear sentences or give them short writing assignments that help them to avoid run ons and to use capital letters, periods correctly!

12TH GRADE BASIC ENGLISH: Ms. M. Barnes

Work on vocabulary and spelling helps ESL students. I always work with students individually going over their writing, sentence by sentence, asking them to explain what they meant if it was unclear.

> at. It would be very difficult to impose a new standard. It wouldn't be a panacea but I think a lot more thought has to go into the counseling of people who presume that they want to teach. It's not as idyllic and pollyanna as people think. It's a lot of hard work. It's like gardening, it's a lot of hard work. Anybody that wants to be a farmer will quickly come away from all these cute little plants and understand that it's an effort to grow 50,000 beets or whatever. I think the counseling and the selection of teachers should be more rigorous in the beginning. They ought to be people, and you can't always tell from an interview, maybe some video presentation or some other new stuff we can't even conceive of, but I think they should be people who can, themselves, write and I'm not interested in the damn National Teacher's test. I think it's bullshit. It doesn't have anything to do with the process. They should be able to write.

Selection of new teachers is usually made from the district "pool," when asked if she were satisfied with the teachers in the "pool," Ms. Morris said, No, we really are not. When we get a candidate we think of as extra-special, that candidate does not last long. Of the substitute pool of about 500 teachers, I would say that two-thirds of them are not quality."

Echoing this sentiment about teacher competency Mr. Johnson, an Associate Superintendent, said that he'd like to be able to "release a lot of teachers who are incompetent and hire a lot of teachers who are more interested in teaching than they are in collecting their paychecks." He was quick to point out that that's not the majority of administrators or teachers. Still, he'd "fire about 200 people right now," about 10 percent of the teachers.

SUMMARY

Teachers are expected to play roles as policy advisers at all levels of governance, sometimes through direct participation at the school site, at other times through representative participation at the district level, and other times through curriculum organizations and bargaining agents. Such policies as testing, Title I, and discipline and attendance are tightly coupled to practices at the school

site, at least as compared to other policies, and have an immediate and direct impact on the teacher's day-to-day life in the classroom. Attendance and discipline policies alone have the potential of adding approximately a twenty student load to each teacher's school day. But policies such as curriculum content and personnel have appeared to be loosely coupled with practice. Teachers know that some curriculum mandates are never carried out, and teachers and administrators do not believe that personnel practices achieve the goals for which they were intended.

CHART 1

POLICIES: LINES OF INFLUENCE

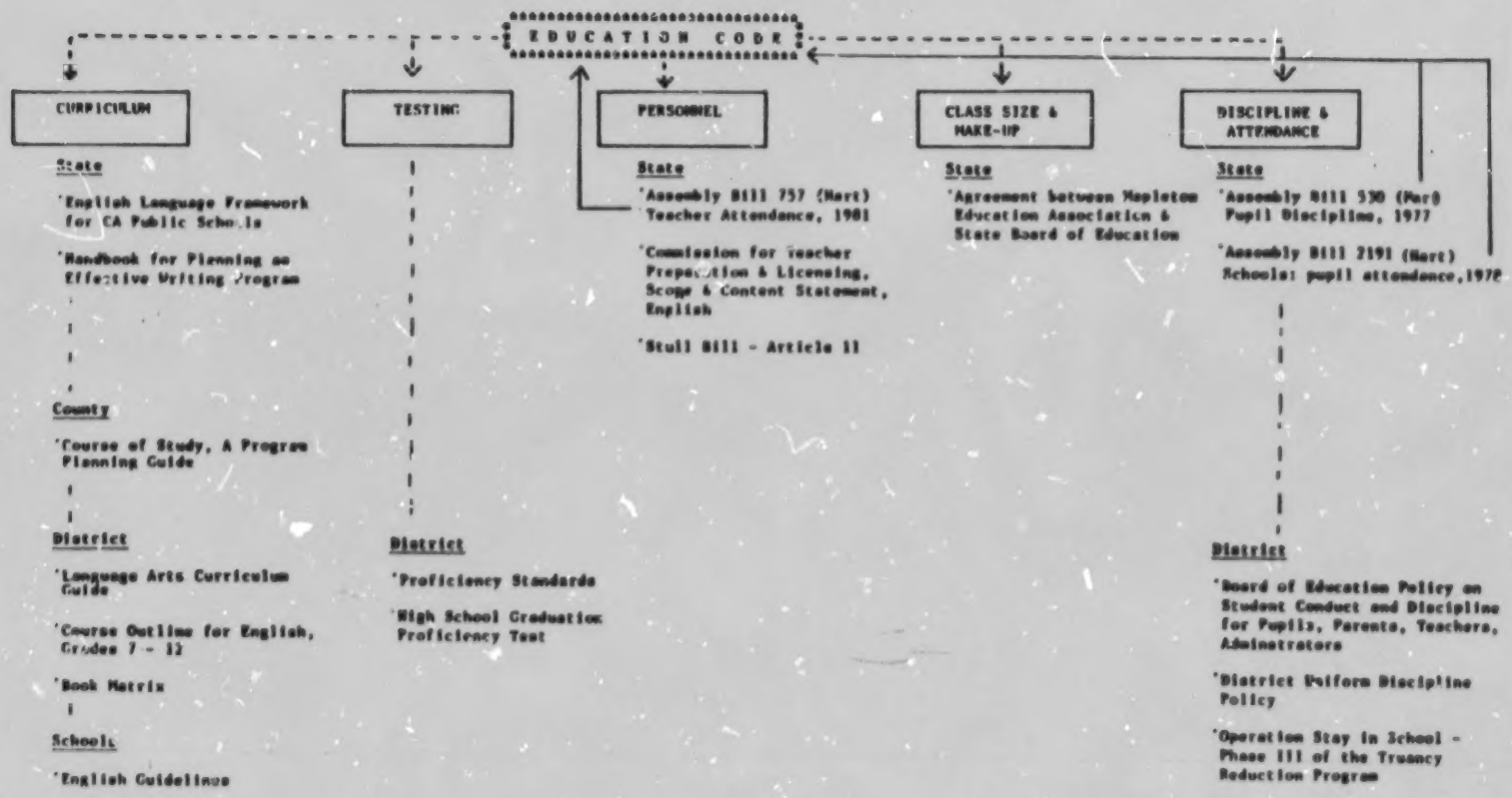
EDUCATION CODE
CURRICULUM
State
'English Language Framework for CA Public Schools
'Handbook for Planning an Effective Writing Program
County
'Course of Study, A Program Planning Guide
District
'Language Arts Curriculum Guide
'Course Outline for English, Grades 7 - 12
'Book Matrix
Schools
'English Guidelines
TESTING
District
'Proficiency Standards
'High School Graduation Proficiency Test
PERSONNEL
State
'Assembly Bill 757 (Hart) Teacher Attendance, 1981
'Commission for Teacher Preparation & Licensing, Scope & Content Statement, English
'Stull Bill - Article 11
CLASS SIZE & MAKE-UP
State
'Agreement between Mapleton Education Association & State Board of Education
DISCIPLINE & ATTENDANCE
State
'Assembly Bill 530 (Hart) Pupil Discipline, 1977
'Assembly Bill 2191 (Hart) Schools: pupil attendance, 1978
District
'Board of Education Policy on Student Conduct and Discipline for Pupils, Parents, Teachers, Administrators
'District Uniform Discipline Policy
'Operation Stay in School - Phase III of the Truancy Reduction Program

Figure 9

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Table 57

What State Goals Are Met by Teaching What Skills?

Relationships Between State Goals and Composition Skills Identified by Groups of Teachers

State Goals

Skills to Teach	State opinion, of self/others in writing & orally	Write for many situations(personl/practical)w/clear, precise language	Use conventions of writing approp. for audience & purpose	Recog. power & import. of order in spoken & written language	Examine response to ideas as way of valuing self/others	Use language competently	Think logically & intuitively	Recognize power of language	Be able to formulate questions
Paragraph form			9						
Cohesion						C	B, BE, 12		
Indiv. responsibility					AE				
Clarity thought		AE		B, BE, 12			B, BC, 12		AE
Sense audience	BC		AS, AE						
Expository writing				AE			AE	AE	
Cultural knldg.					BC				
Writing process				AE		B			
Crit. thinking skills	BC			AE, BC	BC			AE, BC	
Clarity expression				B, BE, R 10/11/12, 12		AS, AE, AE BE, B, 10	AE, BE B, 12	AE	BC
Sense purpose	AE, 10	9							
Details/devel. ideas		BC	BC			AE, 10	BC	10	
Human values	BC	BC			AE, BC, BE				
Self-editing									
Diction/vocab.						AE, BE AE, BC			
Basics:mechanics						BE, B, 10		10	
Basics:sentences						AE, BC, GE B, 10, 12		10	
Journalistic writing	BC	BC, C, 10/12	BC	BC	BC			BC	
Style									
Spelling						AE, BE B, 12			
Essay structure									
Creative thnkg.skills									BC
Ease self-express	BC							BC	
Forms/types of writing		AE, BC	BC	BE					
# of relationships identified	6	6	5	7	5	5	5	8	3
Total # of groups identifying relationships	7	9	6	14	7	27	12	9	3

KEY

AE	Advanced English
AS	Advanced Skills
B	Bilingual
BC	Composition
BE	Basic English Skills
C	Composition
GE	General English
GS	General Skills
R	Remedial
9	Grade Level
10	Grade Level
10/11/12	Grade Level
11/12	Grade Level
12	Grade Level

Resources and Constraints for Teaching Writing

	NATIONAL			LOCAL		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	No.	Mean	Standard Deviation	No.
1. SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION						
a. Leadership of principal	3.55	1.04	58	3.50	1.40	14
b. Guidance from central district office	3.39	1.12	56	3.00	1.30	14
c. Bell schedule	2.58	1.03	55	2.75	1.06	12
d. Attendance and disciplinary policies	2.21	1.19	62	2.54	1.39	13
e. Pupil load	2.22	1.23	58	2.50	0.86	14
f. Teaching policies	2.96	1.26	54	2.67	1.58	9
g. Student and faculty opportunities for participation in school government	3.24	0.74	36	3.09	1.30	11
h. Expectations for student behavior	3.38	1.37	56	3.29	1.49	14
i. Other	1.60	1.34	5	2.33	2.31	3
2. ENGLISH DEPARTMENT						
a. Relations with fellow teachers	3.81	1.25	58	3.86	1.41	14
b. Leadership of chairperson	4.02	1.27	54	3.92	0.90	12
c. Department meetings	3.42	0.94	57	3.38	0.77	13
d. Morale	3.95	1.37	59	3.50	1.08	12
e. Coordination of writing curriculum	3.42	1.18	55	3.36	0.50	14
f. Emphasis on writing vs. other language arts	3.38	1.14	54	3.36	1.27	14
g. Encouragement of team teaching or curriculum planning	3.15	1.23	47	3.42	1.24	12
h. Inservice training opportunities	3.38	1.22	56	3.69	0.75	13
i. Aides and lay readers	3.38	1.48	40	2.78	1.23	10
j. Other	1.00	--	1	--	--	0
3. PROMINENCE GIVEN TO TEACHING WRITING IN THE SCHOOL BY ADMINISTRATION AND OTHER FACULTY						
a. Role of writing in subjects other than English	2.79	1.25	59	3.21	0.80	14
b. Publishing and displaying student writing	3.25	1.03	59	3.15	1.46	13
c. Special writing skills classes	3.74	1.21	53	3.60	1.08	10
d. Writing competency standards and tests	3.38	1.43	53	4.00	0.67	12
e. Other	--	--	0	3.00	--	1
4. STUDENT AND FAMILY FACTORS						
a. Parental academic expectation	2.79	1.19	57	2.64	1.22	14
b. Parental support of school disciplinary and attendance policies	2.93	1.22	57	2.71	1.54	14
c. Entry skills of students	2.10	1.32	58	2.25	1.42	12
d. Student attitudes toward learning	3.60	1.28	60	3.54	1.61	13
e. Student attendance and disciplinary problems	2.18	1.19	60	2.64	1.78	14
f. Students taking leadership responsibilities	2.83	1.10	57	3.46	1.39	13
g. Other	1.50	0.71	2	--	--	0
5. CONDITIONS CHARACTERISTIC OF INNER CITY SCHOOLS						
a. Forced integration and busing	2.43	1.20	35	2.33	1.16	3
b. Teacher strikes	2.70	0.78	27	3.60	0.89	5
c. Teacher layoffs	2.07	0.93	44	2.67	1.12	9
d. Funding and program cutbacks	1.87	0.94	53	2.58	1.51	12
e. Physical decay of inner city areas	1.87	0.81	46	1.90	1.29	10
f. U.S. government funding support (e.g. Title I)	3.28	1.17	39	4.00	1.11	14
g. Other	2.00	--	1	--	--	0

[a] The number of teachers responding to each item includes those who responded (b) not applicable and those who did not answer the item.

VII. THE PROFESSION: THE TEACHER AS A MEMBER OF A PROFESSIONAL COMMUNITY

When teachers are asked what outside resources they use for ideas about teaching composition, they list other teachers first, the department chair and conferences second, and professional reading third (see Table 58). Conferences and professional reading are, by and large, sponsored by the organized professional community of which the teacher is a member in spirit if not in dues. This professional community tends to develop a consensus message about how writing should be taught, and this message and its terms are communicated to teachers through such activities as conferences and publications.

The fact that the terms become part of the teacher's lexicon is evident when teachers are asked the goal of their teaching and how they reach it. For instance, when eight of the fourteen teachers were asked to explain how they achieved two of their goals they used terms such as prewriting, draft, writing workshop, paragraph form, writing process--all terms common in the profession of writing instruction The question addressed in this chapter is how does the profession categorize writing instruction, what ideal model of writing instruction does the profession project, and are the model and instructional categories found in the 14 case study classrooms.

Interviews with teachers, titles of publications and workshops, tables of contents in textbooks about writing, and responses from teachers about the sources of their ideas--all these sources of data suggest that there are six fundamental approaches to the teaching of writing, each with a theoretical framework emphasizing one aspect of writing instruction and categorizing writing instruction in a particular way: genre, subject, rhetoric, sentence, problem solving, and cosmetics.

The genre-theorists answer the question "What is composition ?" by pointing to various examples of written texts, usually prose models. For genre-theorists, readers read (and writers write) because they have in their heads a literary competence which is a representation of the form of texts (Culler, 1975. This representation of texts enables readers and writer to guess fairly adequately what comes next.

These theorists believe that one way one learns

to write is by learning to read, by analyzing the parts of existing texts, and then by imitating examples. Benjamin Franklin for instance, describes how he learned to write by imitating the style of the Spectator, taking notes from his reading and then trying to reconstruct the original form, sometimes turning the tales first into verses and then into their original prose. Says Franklin, "By comparing my work afterwards with the original, I discovered my faults and corrected them." These theorists also believe that another way one learns to write is by learning the forms--introduction, body, conclusion, and such formulas as "There are three reasons why," "for example," and "In summary."

The textbooks of genre model are usually samples of various forms--narration, description, argumentation--followed by assignments like "Find the thesis and three supporting details" or "Try writing an introduction like the one above." Some of these materials (Brooks, 1973) ask students to imitate the style of a given passage and insert their own experience.

These imitations are very helpful for many students, but the model has some limitations. Some students, not learning by analyzing and imitating others, must have the opportunity to discover textual shape in their own thoughts and experiences. The subject-theorists attempt to use experiences from students by designing story starters for one's previous experience ("I wish...I remember..."), by juxtaposing opposite views on a controversial issue, and by presenting new experiences through photographs of people and events. Subject-theorists usually emphasize both writing across the curriculum, in all subject areas, and writing from personal experience. The subject-theorists argue that writing can be used for discovery because, as Piaget has explained, people are in a constant search for coherence and organization. The act of writing facilitates that search, helping people assimilate data and forcing them to find some accommodation between the data and the structures they use to give shape to their experience. Because the writing process forces recognition of assimilation or the need for new structures for new data, writing is a primary method for discovering what one wants to say, needs to know, and already knows.

The subject-theorists often give assignments which ask students to fit data to a given structure or to change a structure. One structure which these theoriests emphasize is predication. That is,

topics like "My horse," "His hometown," or "Capital punishment" do not help young writers find the shape of their subjects. The verb is necessary. "My horse" is not a helpful topic, but "My horse died" is. (Miles, 1979) Some students do not know what they want to write about until they are told what they must write about. Giving the topic with a verb gives the students a framework to change, helping students find their own direction or own topics. Many subject-theorists emphasize the importance of reading in order to get ideas to write about. The essay on the next page is a common example from one of the case study students. The student read a mystery story in a magazine and then summarized the events.

Despite the evident value of the subject-theorist model, many students do not write well unless they recognize the social purposes of writing. For these students subject matter alone is not enough. They need primarily what the rhetorical theorists provide--a social situation with a defined audience. In one example of this model, students are asked to interview someone about a given topic and then write a report on the results for a particular audience. Other assignments often ask students to play different roles, shifting both the points of view on the subject and the distances to audience. For instance, an assignment with the photograph of a house destroyed by a tornado asks the student to write an ad for the local newspaper, attempting to sell the house for $100,000 ("...unusual design...suitable for those with carpentry as a hobby"). Then the student is asked to describe the house from the point of view of an owner writing to an insurance company.

The distance from speaker to audience often determines questions like diction, punctuation, style, and form (Moffett, 1968). The evidence from developmental psychology suggests that close personal audiences are easier for students in the early stages of development.

Some students find rhetorical assignments somewhat overwhelming. At least for variety, these students like smaller units now and then. Sentence theorists, in fact, argue that rhetorical assignments give the students all of the problems of composition at once and that what is needed is some attention to the sentence alone. The teaching approaches recommended by the sentence theorists have varied over the last forty years, often in response to some new development in linguistics.

Some of the first approaches asked students to diagram sentences, dividing the sentence into its immediate constituents, beginning with subject and predicate. Next the models from sentence theorists asked students to write various sentence types (Subject-Verb-Object, for instance), using some prevailing notions from structural linguistics. The early structural textbooks identified eight or nine types, and just when the number reached thirty-three in one textbook, transformational grammar arrived and focused on how the sentence evolved from kernels to surface structure. This notion of the evolving sentence became in practice sentence combining, giving students the simple sentences (simulated deep structure) and asking them to combine the sentences (surface structures): The man saw Bill and The man is in the house become The man in the house saw Bill. The most recent sentence combining approaches have very little pedagogical baggage and are quite useful for giving students an awareness of syntactic options and for developing an ability to write and manipulate the sentence easily. Although combining sentences is not an end in itself for any writer, the ability to combine sentences is one sign of a young writer's developing maturity (Hunt, 1965; O'Donnell, 1967; Loban, 1976).

But sentence theorists, like the others, have their limits. One group of theorists has argued that writing is primarily a problem solving activity. Problem solving theorists like Flowers and Hayes (1978) emphasize the importance of teaching writers how to solve such problems as how to get started and how to revise. The emphasis here is on metacognitive skills, strategies and procedures which writers can use to solve writing problems. One of the principal problems for the beginning writer is how to do everything at once (hold the pencil, make the letter, spell the word, make the sentence, keep the margin, stay on the line, stay on the subject...). Because the young writer can only keep a limited number of things in mind at one time, the limitations of short term memory can become a bottleneck for young writers and cause them to give up in frustration. Just getting older can help because as children get older their short term memories seem to be able to handle more problems simultaneously (Pascual Leone, in press). Just having practice with something can also help because with practice several problems can become chunked into one (Miller, 1956) or some routines can be automatized (LaBerge and Samuels, 1974), reducing the need for separate attention to each operation or problem. Driving, walking, reading a page--in all

of these activities students learn many different operations separately and then chunk them into a single scheme and automatize others. Writing works the same way.

But what does a young writer do who is overloaded with problems? One solution, say the problem solving theorists, is to divide the task into parts and pay attention to only one part at a time. For very young students, this often means dividing the writing task into drawing first and writing second (Graves, 1975). Drawing is an efficient method for getting the story on paper fast. Then later when the student has to write letters slowly and laboriously, the drawing is a reminder of what the writing is all about. Many teachers have extended this idea to older students, developing mapping techniques for both reading and writing (Buckley, and Boyle, 1981). the paragraph on the next page from a case study student is an instance where the student broke the task into parts--first mapping the budget and then writing about it.

For older students, the separation of the writing task into parts can produce three kinds of writing for each assignment-- the prewriting draft, the composed draft for reading aloud to a response group, and the revised paper using suggestions from the response group or from a writing conference with the teacher. The response group of three or four students and the writing conference are based on the assumption that one way to solve problems is to divide the problem into a series of questions. Some teachers give the response groups questions to start with and then later ask the group to list some of its own questions and to identify the two or three most helpful questions or suggestions. (Friedman, in press)

The cosmetic theorists argue that although response groups are very helpful, they are not very effective for solving problems of learning standard conventions of usage and punctuation. These conventions include subject-verb agreement, capitalization, some spelling, some punctuation, and some paragraphing. Punctuation problems involving issue of meaning and emphasis can often be effectively learned in response groups. But matters like the apostrophe on word ending in -s are largely cosmetic, not semantic, and require special handbook expertise not usually found in student response groups. So, too, with paragraphing. Formats with narrow columns, for instance, will require more paragraphing than wider columns. The cosmetic

theorists argue that students should be taught cosmetic editing by giving students writing samples to edit and by equipping students with usable handbooks.

In summary, the various approaches suggest the following variety of writing assignments, found in publications for writing teachers.

1. Cosmetic

Code corrections:/ In this assignment, problems are coded in the margin by the teacher or another student. and the writer finds the code in a text and makes the necessary changes.

Slot-filling: In this assignment, the student fills in a blank or corrects underlined material, often focusing on one of the following: handwriting, spelling, mechanics, punctuation.

2. Sentence

A. Manipulation of given sentences: In this approach the sentences are given in a certain order and then combined (Strong, 1973).

B. Manipulation of form: In this approach, the student is asked to manipulate a given form such as subordinate and coordinate additions to the sentence. The work of Francis Christensen (1979) has been the theoretical base for this approach.

3. Subject

Shifting Point of View: The writing here begins with close personal subjects and moves to what James Britton (1975) calls transactional or poetic writing. This approach often changes form from description to exposition.

The verb: Josephine Miles (1967) has stressed the importance of the thesis predicate in the shaping of a piece of writing. Many teachers have found Miles's work a helpful guide to their own rejection of "My Summer Vacation" topics. This approach suggests that teachers require or provide topics with strong predicates which students will want to change, modify, or develop.

4. Problem Solving

Visual Maps: This approach draws on the work of Marilyn Buckley and Owen Boyle (1981). The approach uses clustering, mapping, and ballooning.

Journals: This is the talk/write approach to invention (Zoellner, 1969), using regularly assigned journal writing and pre-writing.

5. Genre

From Narration to Exposition: This approach presents models of different kinds of writing, identifies the forms of organization in the genre or type, and asks the students to imitate the forms in a writing sample.

Logical Patterns: This approach presents models of different logical patterns--chronology, cause-effect, and so forth. Students are asked to identify the logical form and to write a sample of their own.

6. Rhetoric

Changing Audience: Audience-Speaker: These approaches vary the distance from speaker to audience, thereby changing the type of writing skills required. Most teachers begin with close personal audiences (the "I" of the diary, for instance) and move to more distant audiences. The work of James Moffett (1968) guides many of these approaches.

Groups: Students can practice writing for a particular audience in groups of three or four. Students are taught to play the role of editors of each other's writing (Mary K. Healy, 1981).

Teacher-Student Conferences: The teacher-student conference, using a folder of all of the student's work, is another approach to providing experience with an audience. This technique is sometimes used in combination with editing groups (Murray, 1973).

Changing Voice and Style: Imitating or changing the voice or style of a piece of writing is another approach to learning rhetorical roles. The emphasis in this approach is on the world-view of the speaker (Brooks, 1973; Myers, 1981).

Each of these six approaches to teaching writing is, therefore, presented as a way to solve a recognized problem in writing. Problem solving and sentence approaches help establish the basic skills for fluency. That is, the writer starts with small, separate pieces and, as automaticity and chunking develop, moves to larger pieces. The situation and subject approaches, on the other hand, help develop the basic skills for focus. That is, the situation approaches keep shifting the audience focus, and the subject approaches keep shifting the subject focus, both shifts causing variations in different dimensions of the writing. Finally, the genre and cosmetic approaches help develop a basic awareness of form cosmetic approaches focusing on form in small units such as the letter and the punctuation mark and genre approaches focusing on the form in units larger than the sentence. Some sentence approaches are also helpful for teaching form.

The six approaches can, therefore, be viewed as paired approaches to three different kinds of problems in writing--fluency, focus, and form. These three problems represent the needs of students at three different levels of writing competency (Myers, 1982). At the bottom are students who are struggling to learn the code and in the middle are the students who have developed fluency with the code but who lack focus in their writing. These middle students, who write as if they were holding conversations or writing social notes to friends, need to practice shifting their focus to more distant audiences and subjects. Finally, the students who have learned to focus on more distant audiences and subjects are those who have passed the minimum competency examination but who have much to learn about form, particularly principles of organization.

Underlying these various approaches to teaching writing is the notion of "scaffolding as an instructional method of teaching students to write." "Scaffolding" refers to an instructional support system which starts students in a framework or routine they can easily understand and which modifies and alters the framework as new problems are added (Applebee, 1981;Cazden,1980). The question is what the scaffold or framework should be. Kinneavy (1979) has argued for using a functional speech situation as the framework:

> In the classroom, then, when we can post real communication situations, there is the highest likelihood of transfer of skills. Otherwise the situational context

> has to be simulated. And the further away the level is from the situational context, the less likely is there to be the motivation to transfer (Kinneavy, 1979:19).

Loban also argued for a functional language situation: "The development of power and efficiency with language derives from using language for genuine purposes and not from studying about it" (Loban, 1979:485).

The argument for a functional speech situation as the central organizing principle of writing instruction has empirical support in Piaget's findings that small routines are consolidated into larger ones as children attempt to solve real problems, such as grasping a cup of water (Gruber and Voneche, 1977) and Bruner's findings that in language acquisition children begin with functional joint-action formats which later evolve into dialogue and other language forms (Bruner, 1979).

Myers (1982) argues that a sequence of instruction organized around functional speech situations often begins for bottom writers with simple, dialogic or conversational situations (write a thank you not to X, write a not to your grandmother inviting her to visit the class) and for middle writers shifts to more complicated, monologic or presentational situations (write an editorial for the school paper on Y). The conversational or dialogic situation becomes the scaffold which supports the writing task while the student develops fluency, and when fluency is achieved at some adequate level, then the conversational framework is slowly shifted to a presentational one.

Functional situations come in two forms, real and simulated. The pen pal lesson (Clark and Florio, 1981) an example of a real functional situation shaping a writing assignment. An example of a simulated lesson is the following:

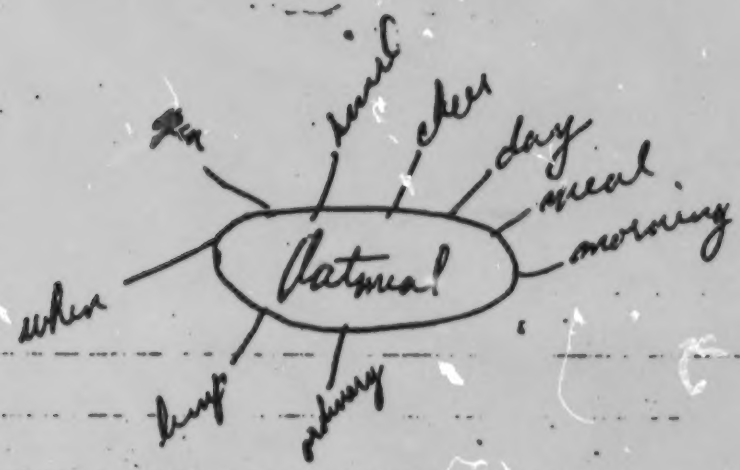
> Imagine that you are a tour director. You will prepare a brochure about a tour to a country of your choice next summer. You may plan the tour to appeal to whatever type of person you want (young, old, learned, fun loving). Get the facts about the country you wish to visit, prepare an itinerary for each day, and prepare the brochure describing the tour as to attract customers.

These functional writing situations, whether to close, personal audiences or to more distant ones, organize writing first around rhetorical situations and second around subjects. The assumptions is that sentence combining and cosmetics like spelling and handwriting develop better in a functional situation, not in isolated skills practice. Problem solving strategies and genre considerations would also develop best in a functional situation.

The question is, then, to what degree do the assignments given in the observed class attempt to establish functional writing situations. A strict interpretation shows that only about 4 percent of the assignments give primary attention to rhetorical focus, but many teachers believe that an assignment like "Combine these two sentences and be prepared to read your results to the class"--an assignment which we coded as sentence combining--is, in fact, specifying an audience and, within the context of school, specifying a function. One of the important functions in school, after all, is to display one's knowledge.

The question then is not whether the situation is functional but whether a variety of audiences are specified. To answer this question, we examined whatever was said about the potential audience for 259 of the assignments given in case study classes no matter what the primary purpose of the assignment was (grammar exercise, note-taking). If no audience was named, the audience was assumed to be the teacher. 70.7 percent of all the assignments were directed to the teacher, 27.7 percent to fellow students, 11.2 percent to the whole class, 4.6 percent to a fellow student or the teacher, and 5.8 percent to others. The others include the local newspaper editor, the school administration, a contest agency, people in the future who will read a time capsule, and the whole school (such as the student newspaper).

The basic mismatch, then, between the recommendations of the profession and the practices of the teachers results from the profession calling for a greater variety of audiences in order to move students from one competency level to another while the classroom teachers continue to serve as the exclusive audience for most writing. What are the possible explanations for this mismatch? That is the subject of the comment at the end of the next chapter.



Life when does it begin When does the cliff freshets of existance overwhelm our being with new energies. When does the tide come thundering in engulfing hill and dale ~~to froze~~ with ~~it~~ its salty ravenous waves. ~~When~~ When does life begin? When did you say? Life begins when the sour tasteless vinegar becomes bittersweet wine in the moonlight. Life begins when you make it my friend. Life begins when the rain pours down to ~~cleanse~~ cleanse the ~~sin~~ and quench the thirst of the moss covered ground. Life begins when the nervous quivery adjective shy amateurs become the Ernest Hemingways of tomorrow. Life begins when the plain simple catepellias emerges from the cocoon a lovely renewed butterfly. Life begins when you make it my friend.

VIII. CONCLUSION

A. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The study was designed to describe the teaching of writing in inner city secondary schools in order to better understand the qualities of effective teaching in those schools. Why inner city schools? The study began with the assumption that the inner city was the number one challenge to American public education. In general, it is the inner cities across the country that have the largest amount of youth unemployment, largest concentrations of adult poverty, and largest numbers of students who fail to achieve even minimum competency on various measures of literacy.

The study proposed to examine teaching in inner city secondary schools along two dimensions which are used to measure teaching effectiveness. The first dimension is classroom instruction, and the effectiveness question in writing instruction is "What writing assignments are given and are these assignments meeting the different needs of students?" The second dimension is classroom and institutional context, and the effectiveness question is "What are the characteristics of the context in which writing instruction occurs, and are writing assignments adapted to fit this context?"

What are the assignments?

This question often assumes that the kinds of assignments which should occur are known. For example, during our study Jane Stallings was asking this same question in a nearby school district. Using findings from her research and others, she assumed that "too much written assignment time" and "too much working with one student at a time" were negatively associated with effective teaching and that "drill and practice" and "short quizzes" were positively associated with effective teaching. (The Stallings Observation Strategy, Morgan Hill Unified, 1982). Stallings is arguing for what Barak Rosenshine has called "direct instruction" --decision making by the teacher, limited choice of materials and activities by the students, factual questions, limited exploration of ideas, and drill" (Peterson, 1981:66). According to Rosenshine, "direct instruction" is associated with achievement gain in reading and mathematics classes (Rosenshine, 1979).

Charles Cooper ,on the other hand, proposed a different answer to the question in his introduction to Applebee's study of writing in secondary classrooms

(Applebee,1981):

> Let's outline a program that not only thwarts students' writing development but also pointedly confuses them about how skilled writers compose and specifically precludes their gaining any insight into the ways writing can be useful to them. How would we conduct such a perverse writing program? We would very rarely ask students to produce original written texts of more than two or three sentences. Though students might have pencil in hand a good deal of the time, we would for the most part limit their writing to note-taking, filling in blanks in exercise books or lab manuals, writing very short responses of a phrase or at most a sentence or two to study questions....On the rare occasions when we did ask students to compose extended written text, we would tell them to keep it short, probably to less than a page of handwriting. We would usually request that it be finished on the spot, within just a few minutes or at most a class period.... we would expect students to begin writing within two or three minutes....We would not talk to students personally about the writing.... (Applebee, 1981:xi- xii).

Cooper emphasizes the positive benefits of teachers working individually with students on their writing, decreasing short answer quizzes, and giving substantial writing time in class when teachers can give help, all matters which Stalling considers to be negatively associated with effective teaching. How does one chose between two different measures of what the assignment should be? First, direct instruction may not apply equally well to all subjects. According to Peterson, although students who receive "direct instruction" tend to do better on achievement tests, they do worse on problem solving than students who receive "open teaching" (Peterson,1981:63). Because writing is a problem solving activity, writing may require a different kind of instruction. The second way to answer the question is to examine what the professional community is saying about how writing should be taught. When practitioners need a norm, they turn to their professional community for an estimate of what it should be. This answer was outlined in the previous chapter and is summarized in Copper's comments. Applebee found that this standard for what assignments should be was not met in the secondary schools he studied. This present study proposes to examine whether

Applebee's findings are consistent with what happens in inner city secondary schools.

Do writing assignments meet the needs of different students?

The study began with the assumption that students at different levels of writing competency needed different kinds of writing experiences provided by instruction. This assumption was based on Myers' study (1982) showing that students at four different score levels on a district assessment of writing samples were engaged in four different kinds of communication. They represented a developmental continuum underlying the way the teacher's assessed writing across several grades levels. Myers suggested that instruction should emphasize different skills at each level of writing. The bottom group primarily needed fluency, the middle group just below the district's minimum standard in writing needed focus on a distant audience, becoming less conversational, and the next group, scoring just below the top papers, needed attention to the form of the essay, including paragraph transitions and introductions and conclusions.

Following up on Myers' study of the needs of students at different levels of writing competency, we proposed to examine the teaching of writing in the same district from which Myers sampled levels of writing competency. The assumption was that effective teachers of writing would vary their instructional approaches to fit needs of the students.

What are the contexts of instruction?

Dreeben (1978), as noted earlier (Introduction), has argued that it is not possible to study classroom instruction without building the properties of classrooms into the formulation "because teachers deal with classroom conditions as much as they deal with individual students." In Dreeben's view, to capture the data necessary for an adequate description of the teaching of writing, one must capture data on the conditions of the classroom. We proposed to examine these conditions in the various roles that teachers play in the Lesson, the Class Period, Institutional Policies, and the Profession. In the Lesson, the teacher plays the role of instructor and shapes writing instruction with four teaching strategies -- giving the assignment, planning the assignment, responding to assignments, and establishing routines, particularly the activity segments of the Lesson. In the Class Period, the teacher

plays the role of manager and uses four strategies for handling a set of class conditions-- establishing discipline, handling interruptions, monitoring attendance, and coordinating resources. In Institutional Policies, the teacher handles policy conditions in the roles of policy adviser and implementer, using various strategies for linking policy and practice. Last, in the Profession, the teacher plays the role of a member of the professional community, and the norms of that profession are a set of conditions with which the teacher is expected to interact.

Are writing assignments adapted to context?

This question assumes that one measure of effectiveness is durability and adaptability. That is, one can imagine what the perfect teacher should be, but if that teacher cannot survive for long periods of time -- for example, a twenty year career in the classroom -- then one might conclude that the "perfect" teacher lacks one of the requirements for effectiveness -- durability. If durability is not one of the criteria for effectiveness, then one may be proposing professional self destruction as one of the criteria for effectiveness. To show how assignments were adapted to context, we described the assignments and the contexts in which they occurred.

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The four units of analysis described above -- Lesson, Class Period, Policies, and Profession -- required four different types of data collection: classroom observations, interviews, questionnaires, collection of student writing, and collection of classroom and policy documents. Data analysis had three levels: (1) coding and counting of events (discipline, assignments, policies) in the data, (2) grouping events into strategies (discipline episodes into discipline styles, assignments into assignment types, coupling into tight and loose), and (3) contextualizing events to show saliency identified by researchers and informants (describing representative cases).

The purpose of this third level was to capture groupings which seemed salient to researchers and informants but which did not appear in frequency counts. In the third level, then, the groupings was established by looking for events in context. For example, the frequency of class segments produced a ranking but not a clear grouping. However, informants and researchers felt that there were salient differences of segmenting style.

Therefore, three teachers with widely different segmenting frequencies were selected as case studies to illustrate differences in this teaching strategy. All levels of data analysis were not always used. For example, the analysis of attendance includes first level frequencies but not second level groupings or third level case studies.

This data collection and analysis focused only on inner city secondary teachers who claimed to teach writing, who taught students at different grade levels and different levels of writing competency, and who had reported a diversity of preparation and confidence in teaching writing. This study, therefore, examined the teaching of writing teachers, not all teachers. The study also eliminated some conditions from consideration. For example, nothing in the study describes the teachers' other instructional responsibilities such as teaching reading and literature. This is a serious limitation because many teachers feel that the time they devote to reading and literature is part of their writing program.

B. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

THE WRITING EPISODE

1. Average Time: The Writing Episode in all classes averaged 16 minutes.

2. Proportion of Total Class Time: The Writing Episode consumed one-third of the total class time.

THE LESSON

Giving the Assignment

1. Frequency: Skill assignments were the most frequent.

2. Proportion of Total Class Time: Idea assignments consumed the largest proportion of total class time.

3. Assignments for Different Classes:

   a. Remedial and Bilingual Classes:

      1. These classes had the largest proportion of class time devoted to writing (over 40%).

      2. Out of the 14 classes, these two devoted

the largest proportion of class time to idea assignments (Remedial--16%/Bilingual--22.5%). These classes ranked second in skill exercises (Remedial--10%/Bilingual--15.6%).

b. Composition Classes: Of all 14 classes, these classes had the largest proportion of total class time devoted to multiple focus assignments (12%) and rhetorical assignments (5%), and the smallest proportion of total class time devoted to skill exercises (2%).

c. General English Classes: Of all the 14 classes, the General English classes had the greatest diversity in the allocation of proportions of total class time to various writing assignments: Reading 6%, Ideas 6%, Skills 10%, multiple focus 6%, and rhetoric 1%.

d. Advanced: Advanced classes emphasized ideas (16%) and skills (9%) in the proportion of total class time, and of all the 14 classes devoted the smallest proportion of total class time to writing.

Short answer assignments (focusing on letter, word, phrase, sentence) are the most frequent assignments (41 %) and the shortest (10 minutes), and consumed the second largest percentage of total class time (27.3%). Ideas assignments, which emphasize fluency through journals, note-taking, and so forth, are the the second most frequent in number given (33.3%), average 16 minutes, and took the greatest proportion of total class time of all the different types of assignments (37.5%). Rhetorical assignments were the least frequently observed (4.7%), but had the second longest average writing time per assignment (20.9 minutes). Multiple focus assignments had the longest average length (26 minutes). Reading assignments took only 10.2% of the total class time and were only 9.1% of the total number of assignments given. Writing teachers, therefore, give primary attention to fluency and to form at the sentence level and below. Almost no attention is given to focus, as shown by the very few rhetorical assignments. In the sustained writing assignments, little attention was given to form above the sentence (only 14 sustained writing assignments out of 276).

Responding to Writing and Assignments

1. Grades and marks from the teacher are the most frequent response practice in all classes.

2. Teachers report that teacher response is used more often than student response to papers. No regular use of student response groups was observed in the case study classrooms.

3. Students show by their paper rankings that they agree with the teachers' standards for papers at the lowest levels of writing competency and have some difficulty agreeing with the standards for papers at the upper levels of writing competency.

Do responses vary for different students?

Students at the lowest levels of writing competency: In their oral comments on papers, teachers emphasized the importance of fluency, and in their written comments on papers, teachers more frequently than with other students asked these students to confer with the teacher.

When the case study students are examining an assignment requiring them to compose a paragraph or more on a topic from their own personal experience, they find that invention ("getting started") is their primary problem. 49% of the students in the hypothetical assignment which asked them to compose and 32% of the students in actual assignment identified invention as the top problem out of five possible. But when the same case study students examine the writing samples on the same topic from other students, they find that the primary problems are handwriting and mechanics. Students do not reconstruct the problems that writers had during the writing process. They simply identify errors in the writing product. Teachers, on the other hand, are more likely to attempt to reconstruct the problems the student writer had during the writing process, and teachers vary their responses by emphasizing fluency for the students at the beginning level of writing development and basic skills and mechanics for more advanced student writers. Teachers and students have excellent agreement in their ranking of papers at the bottom, but they have statistically significant disagreement in their ranking of top papers.

Planning Assignments

1. The length of the planning unit used by a teacher is not a significant influence on the types of approaches teachers used to teach writing.

2. National teachers reported spending 7.6 hours per week on planning, and local teachers reported 7 hours.

Researchers and informants agreed that effective planning is flexible, purposeful (goal oriented), and able to manage a number of resources, drawing upon a number of approaches to the teaching of writing and upon the necessary support materials and services. The time unit used in planning lessons, whether long (Comprehensive Planners) or short (Incremental Planners), was not associated in this study with either flexibility in the classroom, goal oriented teaching, or a variety of approaches used in the classroom. However, these measures of effectiveness appeared to be associated with teachers who had some image of good teaching ("Don't be raggedy," "The ideal teacher is active in the classroom") and who had an elaborated conceptual view of the subject -- in this case, writing. For instance, one teacher who conceived of writing as primarily vocabulary study, what the teacher called "windows on the world," demonstrated in the classroom less flexibility in changing lessons, fewer approaches to the teaching of writing, and a less elaborately defined overall purpose.

Establishing Routines

1. Teachers segment their classes (2.1 overall average).

Do they vary segments to fit student needs?

a. Bilingual and Ninth Grader Classes: Bilingual and ninth grade teachers have an average of 2.9 segments per class.

b. Twelfth Graders: Twelfth graders have an average of 1.9 segments per class.

The case study teachers almost always segmented their class period into more than one lesson activity, the average for the fourteen classes being 2.1%. However, teachers of bilingual classes and ninth graders tend to segment more than other teachers, averaging 2.9 (the highest being 3.4). The segments in twelfth grade classes averaged 1.9 (the highest being 1.9). The fact that single segment classes tended to occur with older groups, particularly 12th graders, both in Advanced and Remedial classes, suggests that a variety of content and activities is less necessary either for older learners or for the students who do not drop out in the upper grades.

Teachers establish when the segments will begin (and sometimes stop) by using verbal and non-vertal moves of various types. The physical arrangement of

the class influences what non-verbal moves can be used.

THE CLASS PERIOD

1. Each class period averages 3.19 discipline problems.

2. Each class period averages 1.72 interruptions.

3. Each class period averages .74 students late.

4. Each class period averages 33% of the students absent. These absences must be recorded, and make-up must be prepared for most of these students.

5. In writing classes, teachers must provide the students with paper, pencils, and other resources for writing and secure whatever other resources are needed for instruction.

Discipline

On the average, 3.19 discipline episodes occurred in the fourteen classes each class period. These are episodes in which the teacher responded in some way. The primary problem eliciting the teacher's response was students making noise which the teacher thought interrupted the class or the work of individual students. The frequency of the discipline episodes and the type of response elicited from the teacher suggest four different discipline styles among the teachers: (1) direct repeaters, (2) indirect repeaters, (3)staplers, and (4) establishers. Because the students varied, it is not clear whether direct repeaters had more discipline episodes or fewer because of direct repeating. For whatever reason, it is clear that in some classes, acceptable student behavior is more nearly established than in other classes. It is also clear that discipline is a major cause of interruptions during the class period in inner city secondary schools.

Handling Interruptions

In addition to discipline, there are other interruptions of the class period. These interruptions include the reading of school bulletins, the arrival of messages and equipment from students and staff members, the public address system, school alarms for such things as fire and bomb drills, the telephone in the classroom, and other events such as noise in the hallway or the street

near the classroom. The number of these interruptions which the teacher responded to each period averaged 1.72 per class period. Presumably, in the case of some interruptions ---answering the telephone, taking the message from students or staff-- the degree of interruption can be reduced by having the students respond. Of the total interruptions counted in classrooms, students responded to 8.9%. It appears, then, that in general teachers do not have students help manage interruptions.

Monitoring attendance

In the classrooms observed and the teachers surveyed, lateness was a relatively minor management problem for teachers. Only .74 students were late in the classes observed. However, daily attendance was a serious problem, absenteeism averaging 33% in the fourteen observed classes.

Coordinating resources

All secondary writing teachers in inner city secondary schools provide paper, pencils, books for editing and writing models, and dictionaries for students. In addition, some writing teachers provice reading materials and audio visual equipment (tapes, movie projectors and films, TV monitors) for instruction. The management of resources is so embedded in the routine of school that many teachers often do not regard such matters as management responsibilities.

POLICIES

1. Teachers participate, in various ways, in the writing of curriculum policies.

2. Testing policy and practice are tightly coupled.

3. Curriculum policy and practice are loosely coupled.

Tightly coupling policy and practice

Teachers as implementers of policy are expected to couple policy and practice. The more specific the policy, the more tightly coupled policy and practice. The degree of coupling, whether tight or loose, can be determined by how closely classroom practice follows the specific mandates of the policy. Three policies appeared to be tightly coupled to classroom practice--testing, Title I and disciplined attendance. All teachers reported that the relatively recent testing program in writing had caused an increase

in attention to writing in the classroom. Many observers noted references in class to the proficiency test. Another possible indication of the tight coupling of testing policy and practice was the testing emphasis on minimums and skills. All teachers commented on how the testing emphasis on minimums had led to a curriculum emphasis on the basic skills. This skill emphasis was encouraged by the fact that under district policy the students, who had to write two writing samples and take a multiple choice test on mechanics, were required to pass only two of the three tests, making it possible for many students to base half of their passing score in writing on a mechanics test.

Second, Title I. In the two schools with Title I programs, the teachers knew about the program and reported situations in which the program influenced events in the classrooms. Third, discipline and attendance. Attendance could be observed being taken, and teachers reported that under district policy, students with excused absences had to be given make-up work. This district policy was the result of a state law which required that suspended students be given make-up and an attorney general's opinion that absenteeism could not be used to reduce the credit hours a student might receive for the course. Absenteeism might result in a lower grade, but it could not result in some proportional reduction in credit. All schools were governed by specific policies on what action could be taken for what discipline offenses.

Curriculum policy and personnel policies, on the other hand, were loosely coupled to practice. In curriculum, each level of governance re-wrote curriculum policies to fit the perceived needs at that level, and at the school site, even when school site policies existed stating specific items to be learned, all informants agreed that not all the teachers followed the goals, objectives or practices outlined in school curriculum policies or state and local policies. The goals, objectives, and practices outlined by the district were organized to vary from grade to grade and were not organized to vary from one proficiency level to another.

The personnel policies were tightly coupled in most respects, although the great majority of these policies were so embedded within the system that they had become unrecognizable routine. One interesting deviation was the question of who hires teachers. The district level said that the school site did the hiring, and the school site administrators said the

district office did the hiring by "dealing" the school site a limited selection. District and school site administrators said teachers were involved, but the teachers reported that they were not aware that teachers participated in the hiring of other teachers. The majority of policy informants on all levels, from the state level to the school site, expressed some dissatisfaction with the way teachers were hired.

THE PROFESSION

1. The profession of researchers and teachers of writing in the secondary school recommend writing assignments based on functional writing situations and sequenced to fit the differing developmental needs of students.

C. COMMENT

The ending brings us back to the beginning. The study began with the question "What is effective writing instruction in inner city secondary schools?" One hypothesis, as noted earlier, was that the teacher's role as instructor in the classroom could not be separated from the teacher's other roles such as class manager and policy implementer. Charles Cooper, speaking for the Committee on Research for the National Council of Teachers of English, has argued that the role of instructor can be separated from other teacher roles, such as the problem of handling large class sizes: "Even as we point to the very real institutional constraints in American High Schools -- poor working conditions for teachers, crowded classes -- we can still acknowledge the school based causes of the writing crisis: lack of writing and poor instruction (Applebee, 1981:xiii).

Is our hypothesis of non-separability sustained? Not entirely. Charles Cooper is right. There are some the assignments which are needed by writers in the middle and upper levels of writing competency but which are rarely used by teachers of writing in inner city secondary schools. The middle student writers need assignments establishing a rhetorical situation with a variety of audiences other than the teacher. The students in the upper levels need assignments which nurture the students' sense of form in units larger than the single sentence, requiring the assignment of composed pieces of writing longer than the sentence and possibly long stretches of writing time in class so that teachers can help students with their organizational problems. These are needs assumed by this study and based on previous research into the levels of writing

competency in the same inner city school district (Myers, 1982).

Does the absence of these types of assignments lead one to the conclusion that the instruction was poor and ineffective for some students, particularly the students in the middle and upper levels of writing competency? Before answering the question, let us consider the reasons that teachers may have given the assignments they did. First, why did teachers give so many "idea" assignments which encouraged fluency, the very skill needed by students at the bottom levels of writing competency? Teachers reported first that they recognized that the bottom students needed "idea" assignments to develop fluency and second that the district was putting enormous stress on students passing the minimum proficiency exam, something that middle writers could do without much change in their writing. The teachers, therefore, used "idea" assignments because they seemed to meet a district priority in testing policy, bring the bottom students up. These assignments also help the student learn to use writing for thinking.

The second question is why did the teachers use so many skill assignments, focusing on form at the sentence level and below? This question is related to another one: Why did the teacher assign so many short pieces and short writing times in class? In part, the teachers' emphasis on skill exercises in instruction reflects the teachers' perception of the emphasis on minimum competency, basic skills, and mechanics in state and local curriculum policies, in Title I programs, and in local district testing policies. In addition, the student's emphasize mechanics when they examine the papers of other students, and these student reactions, whether created by teacher views or not, can be suggestive to teachers about what kind of responses to writing students expect. Students are not just learning to read and write when they enter school. They are learning school, what they have a right to expect as the mainstream experience. There is an interaction between teacher's and students in which each is the others creation.

Furthermore, teachers aim for short writing assignments, the average writing assignment being 16 minutes long. Skill exercises, unlike some other kinds of writing, can be easily adapted to various time slots. The tendency toward short writing assignments is also evident in the teachers' frequent segmenting of the class period to avoid problems of fast workers who then disturb other students or attention drifters who lose interest and move off

task. The fourteen classrooms averaged 2.1 segments per class period.

Teachers can also easily trim or add to skill exercises so that these assignments fit within time spans with frequent interruptions. The combination of discipline problems, interruptions, and lateness interrupt the average class over 5 times per class period. Furthermore, there is the make-up problem. The average class has more than 30% absent, and students who have excused absences under state and district policy must be given make-up. Skill and workbook exercises are much more easily assigned as make-up. The format needs almost no explanation. Students recognize it immediately. These exercises are readily available in printed materials, often with answer sheets so that the student's work can be easily checked, even by other students. Several teachers reported that they kept a packet of such materials for student make-up. Long assignments, on the other hand, often require long explanations, and the reading of long essays. In this way, the future make-up demands begin to shape what a teacher might assign on a given day.

If the teacher attempts a long assignment developed over several days, and if half the absent students return the next day, then the teacher could find that easily 15% of the students in class were not present for what happened the day before. Each day the number of students working at different points in the assignment could increase, requiring individual attention for more and more students as the normal, daily interruptions continued to make individual demands on the teacher. This assignment drift is also increased when the students in a given class have very different levels of development in writing competency. Some students are needing to move on while others need more time. The short assignment becomes a way for the teacher to keep the class together at two or three points in the class period and avoid the deepening confusion that results when more and more students cannot get the individual attention they need with long assignments.

The teaching of skill exercises can be seen then as a reasonable adaptation to an emphasis in testing and curriculum policies, to student expectations about responses to writing in school, to attendance patterns, to class interruptions, and to student attention drift. But suppose one imagined that instruction could be judged good or poor without reference to such institutional conditions as testing and curriculum policies, attendance patterns

and make-up, and class interruptions. Then one would, as some researchers do, conclude that one reason there are no long assignments and too many skill exercises is that instruction is poor.

What would a good instructor do in this context-free view of effective teaching. Presumably, he or she would ignore the conditions and assign what the students needed. There are such teachers. They battle with the school staff about classroom interruptions, they resist the testing and curriculum policies, they suspend discipline problems from school, they refuse to give make-up after 5 or 6 absences and fail 25% of their students or more, they send numerous notices to parents about the failure of students to attend, do work, or focus on learning, and they lock their doors and refuse to let late students in class. Meanwhile, in the classroom they have carved out a space for learning for the students who are there.

Many of our teachers showed this kind of spirit now and then, but they did not lock their doors or suspend students or refuse to give make-up. These teachers design many of their assignments to fit the contextual situation, and they also design many of their assignments to fit the learning needs of different students. The general use of idea assignments, the journals in bilingual classes, the variety in General English--all these findings and others show a consistent effort to vary many assignments to fit student learning needs. At the same time, these teachers design assignments to structure the class in context. They use short skill assignments, for instance, to structure small blocks of time in the middle of interruptions and the like. The two design problems, context and student needs to learn to write, often called for different, if not contradictory assignments. The ability of these teachers to design solutions for these contradictory demands is testimony to their effectiveness. For them, ignoring conditions is a luxury only a researcher can enjoy.

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APPENDIX

A. Second Language Interference in Bilingual Classes

B. Observation Instruments

- Cover Pages
- Notes
- Writing Episode Summary
- Class Summary/Segment
- Matrix

C. Teacher Questionnaire

- Form A
- Form B

D. Student Questionnaire

E. Teacher Interviews

- Teacher Interview on Students
- Part Two and Three
- Part Three

F. Teacher Logs

- First Log
- Second Log

G. Follow-up Interviews with Teachers

H. Interview Questions for Policy Educators

I. Comments by Teachers on "Errors" in Student Papers

Appendix A

Errors--Bilingual Classes*

The purpose of this analysis was to evaluate student writing samples in terms of "errors" attributable to Spanish language interference in students' written English. It must be said at the outset that the term "errors" is not meant to imply deficiency on the part of the writer; these are not considered to be random mistakes produced by ignorant or careless minds. They are "errors" as viewed from the perspective of "standard" or "grammatical" English but they are errors derived from a creative and systematic process of analogical thinking. That is, the student who speaks Spanish (or Spanish-influenced English) as a native language produces English "errors" by making analogies to Spanish forms and constructions; more precisely, he or she may produce "errors" by applying Spanish morpho-syntactic and phonological rules to the formulation of written English words and sentences.[1]

One caveat to this approach must be presented here, however. It cannot be determined with certainty that every "error" discovered in these papers is attributable exclusively to Spanish-language interference. Some of the error types reported here are found in the papers of non-Spanish speaking students. One factor which may contribute to this is that the transition from oral to written language may induce common patterns of error production, regardless of the writer's native spoken language. However, it does seem clear that certain writing errors are reinforced, if not produced, by a systematic process of first language interference in second language writing. Such "errors" are the ones coded in this evaluation of student

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* From Warantz, Ellissa, "Teaching English to Spanish-English Bilinguals," in Working Papers for BLE Study of Writing in Inner City Secondary Schools, Bay Area Writing Project, University of California, Berkeley, April 1982.

1 cf. Rizzo and Villafane, 1975, for further discussion of this process.

writing performance. Two additional categories of "errors" were coded, although they seem only tenuously related to interference from Spanish: "separation of word syllables" and "miscellaneous spelling errors." These errors were included in the analysis primarily because they occurred relatively frequently and therefore represent an important aspect of students' overall writing proficiency.*

For the purpose of coding and analysis, "errors" were divided into three general types: 1) spelling errors, 2) morpho-phonemic errors, 3) stylistic errors.+ In addition to these error types, student papers also contained a wide variety of syntactic errors that were simply uncodable, since either the constructions were so contorted it was impossible to determine the primary source of error, or the errors contained were anomalous (not part of a general error category). These un-codable errors will be treated separately in the following discussion. One other category of error requires comment here, however. "Cosmetic errors" (i.e. capitalization and punctuation) occurred frequently in student papers, but were not coded, for several reasons: 1) photocopies of student papers were often too "light" to ensure that all the punctuation marks were reproduced, 2) student handwriting often precluded the possibility of distinguishing upper and lower case letters, 3) teacher corrections often included insertion of punctuation in such a way that it was difficult to distinguish "editing marks" from student writing, and 4) punctuation and capitalization errors were often inextricably linked to syntactic errors which were previously coded. Finally, all student compositions contained "run-on sentences" (often including inappropriate use of conjunctions), but since these errors did not seem directly related to problems of Spanish interference or even to an overall pattern of punctuation error (derived from such interference), they were not coded and will be discussed only in terms of individual student writing "style."

The analysis presented here is based on the

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* Only one student's papers in this sample contained actual Spanish words; all student papers, however, contained English "errors" directly attributable to Spanish interference.

+ Specific error categories were, in many cases, drawn from Rizzo and Villafane's article, "Spanish Language Influence on Written English," 1975. the distinction between "stylistic errors" and the two other general error types is also based, in part, on that article.

examination and coding of 44 student papers: 14 compositions and 30 "vocabulary sentence exercises." The sentence exercises consisted of seven "vocabulary assignments" in which students were expected to write "creative" sentences using words assigned by the teacher. The teacher selected these words from the dictionary; exercises generally consisted of twelve sentences. These vocabulary assignment samples included quizzes and homeworks (these were identical in format and could be distinguished only by the grading system employed; homeworks got "check-marks" and "re-write" comments while quizzes got letter grades). One other sentence exercise consisted of students providing their own sentences to illustrate various sentence "types" (e.g. interrogative, declarative, etc.).

Composition samples included: 1) a discussion of a field trip to a local university, focusing on students' impressions of a particular "workshop" concerning Latino students and their problems; 2) a "short-story" composition based on a cartoon provided by the teacher (a drawing of two men apparently being "chased" by a dinosaur); and 3) a "final" composition based on student choice of topics ("drugs and the student" or "the most important person in my life").

In coding the papers, an initial decision was made to distinguish between errors produced in sentence exercises and those produced in compositions. Thus, error frequencies are cited separately for each type of assignment. It was initially assumed that differences in writing task might well determine differences in the types of errors produced: specifically, it was expected that the complex discourse constraints involved in composition writing might tend to "overwhelm" students and induce them to produce more errors of all types, than would "simple" sentence exercises. Yet, one initial finding of this research was that sentence exercises are not "simple" writing tasks. In fact, aside from the constraint of producing thematic coherence, the discourse constraints operating on sentence writing exercises appear to be almost as complex as those involved in composition writing. One could almost say that there is a genre called "sentence exercises" in which the complete discourse unit is the individual sentence. The sentence, as a discourse unit, is constrained by literate style conventions; judgments about the "correctness" of these sentences are based on normative standards of what is appropriate writing in the context of this particular task. As an illustration, consider the following sentences:

1. In the store I went.

2. I went in the store.

Both sentences are equally "grammatical" in an absolute sense; both could easily be produced and judged to be acceptable in oral language, and in some forms of written narrative (provided sentence one was preceded by an appropriate context, such as "He dared me to go in the store..."). However, sentence number 1 is not acceptable as a "sentence exercise" sentence. If presented to a teacher as part of such an assignment, it would most likely "look wrong" and would be corrected to resemble sentence #2. Again, the point is that there is a context, unique to "sentence exercises," in terms of which "correctness" or "acceptability" judgments are made by teachers. Thus, as in composition writing, students are confronted with a set of constraints which they must honor in order to perform successfully in sentence writing tasks (see discussion of definite/indefinite article "errors" below).

ERROR FREQUENCIES

1. Spelling Errors.

These errors are generally related to Spanish pronunciation or phonological interference, which may cause (or at least reinforce) problems in the mastery of English orthography. (See Table 1 for a list of frequencies of all errors.) All the students in this sample had been schooled in writing Spanish and thereby learned the principles of a highly phoneticized orthographic system; i.e., in Spanish orthography, one sound equals one letter; consonants are rarely doubled. By analogy, they then seem to apply these rules to the production of written English, which is notoriously "un-phonetic." Furthermore, these students tend to write English as they speak it; i.e., with a reduced number of vowel phonemes, and a reduction of final consonant clusters.

Omission of final "ed" from past tense or participle

This error is common to many monolingual English writers as well, but seems to be reinforced in the case of Spanish speakers by the lack of such final consonant clusters in Spanish, and their consequent reduction in the spoken English of bilinguals. These errors accounted for 75 percent of composition errors and three percent of sentence errors and were coded independently of errors in tense consistency. It is worth noting, however, that the two error types may be closely related. That is, omission of "ed" in some

cases may derive less from phonological interference than from imperfect mastery of English verb conjugations. One student, in fact, went so far as to include the "ed" ending where it was not appropriate to do so ("didn't stopped"). Problems of tense agreement will be discussed further below, along with other "verb" errors.

Pronunciation Interference

These errors generally included vowel misspellings, and seem to constitute the "classic case" of interference, in which Spanish pronunciation and orthography combine to produce both initial mistakes and "hypercorrection" mistakes; e.g. "reach" for rich, "leasen" for listen, "petiently" for patiently, "agen" for again, "an" for on, "understud" for understood, "layer" for lier and (as examples of consonant errors influenced by pronunciation) "thing" for think and "they" for day. These errors constituted a large percentage of both composition and sentence errors (16 percent and 15 percent respectively).

Dropping of doubled consonants

Since doubled consonants rarely occur in written Spanish, students apparently tend to drop them in English writing or, recognizing that a doubled consonant is sometimes needed, insert an unnecessary one; e.g. "realy," "comunity," "murdder," "neccesarry." English words that have almost identical Spanish cognates are also frequently misspelled in this way; however, these were coded separately (see "Cognate misspellings"). These errors constituted 3 percent of sentence and of composition errors.

Cognate Misspellings

As noted above, these errors often take the form of dropped double consonants (e.g. "profesional," "necesary," "oficial"). Other errors also arise from the attempt to make English words conform to related Spanish spellings (or, at least, the student's perception of those spellings); e.g. "experiense," "provlem." The latter example ("provlem" for "problem" or "problema") reflects a common Spanish spelling mistake (substitution of "v" for "b," since there is no phonetic contrast between the two), that is in turn applied to the English cognate. Errors of this general type constitute only 1 percent and 2 percent of composition errors and sentence errors, respectively.

Confusion of When/Went, What/Want

It can be argued that these errors are caused by the lack of voiceless "w" and the lack of final "t" after "n" in Spanish bilingual pronunciations of these words. While both these phonetic features are absent in many other dialects of English, (and in fact, these errors also occur frequently in the work of other students) it may still be the case that these errors are particularly reinforced in the case of Spanish speakers. These errors constituted 1 percent of both composition and sentence errors.

Finally, two categories of spelling errors were coded that seemed only tenuously related to actual Spanish interference, as noted above.

Separation of Word Syllables

Students tended to "break down" certain words into constituent morphemes; e.g. "to day," "every where," "some time." These errors constituted 3 percent of composition errors and 1 percent of spelling errors. Interestingly, unlike other spelling errors, these errors were consistently made by students. That is, if the word was misspelled at all, it was consistently misspelled within a given paper. Such errors were only counted once in the coding of that paper.

Miscellaneous Spelling Errors

This was a catch-all category of errors that could not be related to any particular feature of Spanish interference, and often seemed due to "hurried handwriting" more than anything else; e.g. "exahusted." These errors constituted 2 percent of composition errors and 1 percent of sentence errors.

2. Morpho-syntactic Errors

As noted above, these errors seem to arise from the application of Spanish syntactic (or morphological) rules to English constructions. By far the largest percentage of errors in this category involved attempts at literal translation of Spanish idiomatic expressions and prepositional phrases into English (see discussion below).

Omitted Words

These errors took two forms: deletion of subject pronouns (which are not required in Spanish) and deletion of modified nouns (or "nominalization" of adjectives, which is common in Spanish). Examples: "The

town has great importance becauce is great," "I have one cat and everyday is growing," "the necessary" (from "el necesario" which is perfectly acceptable in Spanish). These errors constituted 2 percent of composition and of sentence errors.

Omission of "n" from Indefinite Article

This is a morphophenemic rule that non-native English speaking students may have difficulty in mastering. It occurred only once, in one student paper, as "a inheritance." However, it must be noted that students frequently deleted the indefinite article altogether, or else substituted the definite article inappropriately. (These errors are discussed below.) They, along with the fact that omission of "n" occurred only in the "best" student's work, suggest that this omission may be a "higher-order" error.

Confusion of Comparative and Superlative

Since the Spanish adverb "mas" is most frequently used for adjective comparison (meaning both "more" and "most"), students seem to have a particularly difficult time expressing comparative and superlative distinctions. Examples: "more near," "bigger as," "most queerest," "tallest" (one of two, rather than "taller"). These errors constituted 2 percent of composition errors, but less than 1 percent of sentence errors.

Infinitive Used as Verb Complement--Omission/Inclusion of Infinitive "to"

These errors were coded separately, but in fact seem correlated with one another as a reflection of student problems with English gerund usage. Spanish often requires use of the infinitive as a verb complement, whereas the gerund may be grammatically or stylistically required in English. Students frequently seemed to deal with this problem by "covering all their bets" and including the infinitive marker "to" along with a gerund as verb complement; e.g. "I went to swimming," "to investing," "to growing." Occasionally clear errors of one type or the other were made e.g. "started speak," "afraid of her to say something." These errors, combined, constituted 3 percent of composition errors and 4 percent of sentence errors.

Literal Translation of Idiomatic Expressions, Prepositions

As mentioned above, these were the most frequent errors produced over-all (but see discussion of "Mis-

use of vocabulary words"). Examples of direct idiom translations include: "had fear" (tener miedo), "had 11 years" (tener 11 anos), "while" (for "in the meantime" or "meanwhile," from Spanish mientras); "She didn't give any importance to the problem" (dar importancia a), "answered questions to the students" ("contestar a" or "responder a"). Preposition translations seemed to present particular problems for these students, since Spanish prepositions have a variety of English translations; e.g. "de" = of or from, "a" = to or at, "para/por" = for, towards, or by. Students frequently used "wrong" prepositions, presumably because they chose the "wrong" translations. Further problems of this type were the confusion of "on" and "in" (presumably from Spanish "en"), use of "ask to" from "pedir a," and confusion between the verbs "say," "tell," and "talk" (all of which may serve as translations for Spanish "decir" but which have different meanings in English and take different complements). These errors as a whole comprised 16 percent of composition errors, and 12 percent of sentence errors.

Verb Errors

These include five categories of verb construction errors, none of which can be definitively linked to Spanish interference, but which are nevertheless probably reinforced by differences in Spanish and English structures. Included are: lack of subject-verb agreement (1 percent of composition errors, 5 percent of sentence errors), lack of tense consistency (e.g. switch from past to present tense within a sentence, 5 percent of composition errors and 2 percent of sentence errors), problems with modals (can, could, would, be able are often confused or incorrectly inflected; e.g. "I wish I can go next year," "If we had...we can get...." These were 3 percent of composition errors, less than 1 percent of sentence errors) and missing copulas (in three cases before predicate adjectives, in ten cases before verb + ing. These constituted 1 percent of composition errors and 4 percent of sentence errors).

Noun Errors

These included four error types that can be fairly directly related to Spanish interference:

Lack of Noun-Pronoun Gender Agreement

Spanish possessive pronouns are not marked for gender and presumably Spanish speakers have trouble "keeping straight" the gender markings of English pronouns. Similarly, students sometimes marked subject

pronouns for gender when this was inappropriate in English; as in "The snake is poisonous when she is mad," since Spanish subject pronouns are expected to agree in gender with their noun referent. These errors composed less than 1 percent of sentence errors.)

Omission of Plural Marker

(1 percent of composition errors, less than 1 percent of sentence errors--this error type is most probably related to the following "number problem").

Problems of Number Agreement

This includes inappropriate pluralization of adjectives, as in "goods grade" and "officials things," as well as apparent confusion over the "number" expressed in abstract nouns and certain modifiers; e.g. "all kind of people," "all partner." The former errors seem to derive from the Spanish requirement of adjective-noun number agreement. The latter error probably relates to translation problems discussed above; e.g. "people" was frequently treated as a singular noun regardless of context, perhaps because students were translating from "la gente" which is always singular. These errors were included in the count given above for plural marker omissions.

Mis-use of Definite and Indefinite Articles

The most common error of this type is the use of a definite article before abstract and generalized nouns (since this is required in Spanish). Examples include: "The salt is necessary in my house," "The nourishment is good for my body," "We live with the nature."* Other

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* These examples were all taken from "sentence-writing exercises," where use of the definite article was corrected by the teacher. This lends support to the finding, discussed above, that the "sentence exercise context" determines judgments about correctness in some cases. Use of the definite article in these sentences would certainly be appropriate in another context; e.g. one in which the writer had previously established a particular "salt," "nourishment," or "nature" in contrast to the general class of "salt," "nourishment," etc. However, in "isolated" sentences, this use of the definite article seems inappropriate. Therefore, the errors discussed here may be considered to be more "stylistic" than "morpho-syntactic," in that they do not constitute violations of grammatical constraints so much as they do violations of appropriateness judgments. (See discussion below of "stylistic errors" for clarification of this distinction.)

errors of this type involve deletion of the definite article where it is appropriate (perhaps because students have "learned the rule" and then over-extended it); e.g. "government of United States," "my brother has courage to do the work." Similarly, students often include the indefinite article where it is inappropriate (e.g. "The patient is making a good progress," "Meat is a very good nourishment") or delete the indefinite article where it is required (e.g. "She was stranger to me," "I don't have father," "I received big inheritance," all complete sentences from sentence exercises). These errors, as a whole, comprise 10 percent of composition errors and 9 percent of sentence errors.

The final two "basic" error types are as follows:

Mis-use of Vocabulary Words

These errors took two forms: "parts of speech" errors and "translation" errors. The former occurred more frequently in sentence exercises, while the latter occurred more frequently in compositions. Parts of speech errors generally arose from students' attempts to use assigned vocabulary words in sentences, apparently without understanding the meaning of the word or, simply, what part of speech it was. Some of these errors occurred throughout the sample: e.g. use of "punishment" for punished, "growths" for grows, "importance" for important, "hesitate" for hesitant, "foreign" for foreigner. Other, similar errors included: "measurement" for "measure," "fear" for "afraid," "to memory" for "remember." "Translation" errors generally involved inappropriate word choice: e.g. "necessary" for "need" (perhaps from Spanish "necesitar" or the cognate "necesario"), "air" for "wind" ("the air was so hard," perhaps an incorrect translation of "viento"). Although these errors seem related to other error categories (pronunciation interference, literal translations, syntactic or word order errors, etc.) they were treated independently because they consisted of individual lexical items used incorrectly. They comprised 13 percent of composition errors and 19 percent of sentence errors.

Syntactic (word order) Errors

Errors were coded into this category if they seemed to involve fairly straightforward problems of word order, such as "mis-placement" of prepositional or adverbial phrases. (They rarely involved problems of N-V order.) Examples: "The man patiently you talk about," "I walk my mother to the store generally," "I wish I can go next year (on) the same field trip," "The

teachers have to go to school generally the same as the students." These errors comprised 6 percent of the composition errors and 4 percent of the sentence errors.

3. Stylistic Errors

This category of errors requires some detailed explanation. In coding the papers, it became clear that the factor of "style" contributed to evaluation of student writing performance in much the same way as basic usage or spelling errors did. "Style" as used here refers to the relative grace or awkwardness of syntax in student papers. Essentially, judgments about style are judgments of appropriateness rather than grammaticality; i.e., given a choice of equally grammatical alternatives that may be used in a specific context, which one is most appropriate or preferable in terms of English stylistic constraints. Spanish interference is reflected in English style errors in two ways: (1) writers may avoid English constructions which are most appropriate, but which have no parallel in Spanish (e.g. possessives, contractions) or 2) writers may employ knowledge of Spanish stylistic constraints (or required constructions) to produce stylistically inappropriate or awkward English constructions (e.g. an abundance of relative clauses rather than the use of prepositional phrases). It must be stressed that judgments about stylistic errors made during the coding process were necessarily very subjective; in many instances these analytic judgments were supported by evidence of teacher corrections, but in some cases, the researcher's judgment alone was involved. Therefore, this report on stylistic error patterns must be considered as suggestive, rather than an absolute or definitive assessment.

Finally, while mastery of English style constraints may indicate a high level of proficiency among student writers, (cf. Rizzo and Villafane, 1975, p. 69), it was hypothesized that these errors might, in fact, occur more frequently in the papers of more "ambitious" or "sophisticated" writers (who have mastered grammatical but not stylistic constraints) rather than in the papers of "basic" writers who are still struggling with English subject pronouns.

Only one category of stylistic error actually involves "mistakes." This category is labeled "avoidance of contractions" and theoretically includes misspellings as well as omission of contractions. All students demonstrated competence in using contractions, in at least some of their papers, so it was clear that none of them categorically avoided the use of contractions. Judgements of "appropriateness" or "style" in

cases where contractions were not used seemed difficult to make; therefore, coding of this category was restricted to misspellings (e.g. "did', don'nt, lets'"). These errors comprised 2 percent of composition errors and less than 1 percent of sentence errors (contractions were used by all students in both writing tasks.)

Another stylistic error category involves avoidance of possessives (which, along with the contractions discussed above, are absent in Spanish). This category does not focus on mistakes, necessarily, but rather on syntactic "awkwardness" or (what appears to be) wordiness; e.g. "the name of my neighbor," vs. "my neighbor's name," or "addicts of drugs," vs. "drug addicts." In the latter example, a compound noun would, of course, have been appropriate (rather than a possessive). This type of example, however, was included in the general category. It occurred relatively infrequently, but seemed of the same general type. Avoidance of possessives occurred as 1 percent of the composition errors and 4 percent of the sentence errors.

A third error category involves the appearance of "unnecessary" relative clauses (or "clause-heaviness") in sentences. Rizzo and Villafane (1975) list two variants of such errors, a preference for relative clauses instead of verbal complements, and a preference for relative clauses instead of prepositional phrases. Only the latter error was found in student papers; e.g. "they don't see the danger that drugs produce," "The people protest about the decision the judge made," "Mr. Lugo was merry on his birthday party that was celebrated by the students," "There were two men that were explaining." This use of relative clauses seems to be related to Spanish stylistic preferences. These errors comprised 1 percent of composition errors and less than 1 percent of sentence errors.

As discussed above, students often had difficulty using English gerunds and infinitives correctly, since a gerund may be required or preferred in English where the infinitive is required in Spanish. Given a choice, students seem to prefer use of the infinitive, although a "preposition plus gerund" would be more appropriate; e.g. "This is a big problem and we have to start to take care of it," "I like to invest my money to buy clothes," "All the classes have importance to study and be something in the future," "Some people have the merit to be good persons," "started to speak" (rather than "started speaking"). These errors comprised 1 percent of both composition errors and sentence errors.

4. Uncodable Errors

Errors were not coded if they seemed anomalous or idiosyncratic (not part of a wider pattern of errors), or if they were linked to produce a completely garbled message (where sentence meanings could not be determined, errors could not be distinguished). While these errors were not assigned to a coded category, they were noted in detail on coding sheets for individual student papers.

The following are examples of uncodable errors taken from sample papers, along with the teacher's corrections, and suggested alternative corrections:

1. The weather this year is better then the one of last year. (student)
   The weather is better this year than last year. (teacher)
   The weather this year is better than last year's weather. (alternative)

2. What is the best school to have a good education? (student)
   What is the best school to get a good education? (teacher)
   What is the best school for a good education? (alternative)
   What is the best school in which to get a good education? (alternative)

3. Some people who have attended to college now they are big persons with careers like lawyers, doctors, etc. that help all the community even you. (student)

   Some people who have attended college now have big important careers like lawyer, doctors, etc. Many stay and help the community. (teacher)

4. The importance of a college education is very necessary for life. (student)
   A college education is very important and necessary for life. (teacher)

Further examples of uncodable errors include:

1. That will be for them an important victory of their exploration.

2. I can get a good job for me.*

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* This error was relatively common and could, perhaps, have constituted a discrete stylistic error category

3. That man that suppose is going to do the speech he didn't come...

4. Does why he gave us...

5. The are many production of cells.

6. The explorers feel in a different and new atmosphere.

7. They started to try if the machine work, going just 10 years before.

8. In what distance to be you school.

9. my friend to have guardian in my house.

10. he going a do pledge of the church.

11. I give my friends advice not to use drugs because you guys going to be old man, you going a dead soon.

12. Let's not care our hats.

13. We are using the fermentation word for class.

14. The house is colors glorious.

15. Mexican lord was taking by prize.

16. I want to know what is punishment means.

17. We have in Mexico industrious in the city people. with my firends and with my dog that day for not listening to my mother I remember that I was swimming down the river and then...

19. The dinosaur was out waiting for them to get out. The dinosaur didn't because the two men were smart and they covered the cave with a big rock.

APPENDIX B

110

MD
3/11/81

School: Hudson H.S.

Grav. No. 6th

COVER SHEET

COVER SHEET: NOTES

R/A: [redacted]

Teacher:

Class: English II, 11th grade 1-4

Period: 2

Time: 9:41-10:31

Day of Week: WED

Date: March 11, 1981

No. Ss Present: 27

Special School Schedule: NO

TIME	NOTES
Seating Chart Sheet	
Desk Podium overhead	Table / Door

R1	R2	R3	R4	R5
1 BM	—	26 BF	25 BF	17 BF
2 BM	—	2 FBF	13 CP	—
3 BM	8 AM	25 BM	14 CF	19 BM
4 BF	8 F	12 CF	15 CF	20 BM
5 BM	10 BM	24 AM	16 BM	21 BM
6 BM	11 CF	absent	17 CM	22 CM
	today absent #7 BM sat there			23 BM

B-1

7-C the board and explains the contraction has "do" and "not" in it, "not" is an adverb. He elaborates on this example.

7-A 1 S asks a question about the homework. T says:
3-A "I know it gets confusing" but students should write entire verb phrase. T says he hasn't been marking down grades for students who haven't done so because of the confusion.
7-A, 3-A 6/2 asks a question and says that "so afraid" doesn't sound right. T responds that what is important is recognizing the adverbs and understanding the exercise.

3-J T: "What I'd like you to do for the next 20 minutes...
7-A well first let me ask you - if I give you 20 minutes in small groups to finish up" is that enough?"
5-H The class chorus "yes". The noise level rises again.

Segment 2
1-C T reminds them homework is due and that there's a test on Friday. "Alright, you've got about 15 to 20 minutes to get these things done." (the handout answer

Segment 2
5-M 12:11 Students split up into small groups - noise level rises.
2-K T erases the board, answers a few S questions, ~~answers~~
2-H # organizes his belongings, tells one group to be quiet, and seats himself at the front desk.
2-K T gets up to answer another question.
7-A T: "Ok how many groups have already answered the questions? 2 groups?" He tells the others they have 10 minutes and those who have finished should work on their vocabulary or read in Red Badge of Courage. I scoots hurriedly at the front desk again
2-K 12:16 and begins looking through the homework. He answers
7-B another student question.
6-M, 6-P 3/4 of the class are working at their desks not in groups. The group observed yesterday continues to

jobs around. T talks to a student briefly about the book on impressionism. In the group I have observed Ss, gets up to get a dictionary at the back of the classroom, looks at it, then S2's desk. The group briefly discusses a question about why he looked from one to the other. S3 says "because it was a natural human reaction." Some of the students write down answers to the question. The group goes back to joking or working individually.

2-H T goes over to one group who are looking at the newspaper. He says "You can do that at home" and asks them to put it away. T then goes over to the Mrs. Jones. They discuss a paper she has been correcting.

1-C 12:3 T goes to the front of the classroom and says "O.k. o.k., you've got two more minutes to finish up." Then he

3-6 seats himself. The group I am observing hushes to get done, then one S lapses back into joking, holding up the

7-B book and naming the picture on the cover. T answers a few student questions.

Segment 3 1-A T: "O.k. that does it." "That's enough time. That's as much time as I can give you." one S from my group says "Just give us 15 more minutes!"

1-C T asks the group leaders to come up. T answers

7-B a series of student questions. The leaders, chosen by

5-B group members line up at the front board.

2-H 12:26 T "O.k. quiet in the class. quiet in the class." "I'm

7-A serious now." T calls on specific individuals. There are 7 students at the front of class. He says he's

2-H going to start writing names on the board (doesn't do so)

3-B Some more level layers in reaction to the threat.

1-C T tells S at left end of line to begin. T begins passing

3-A, 2-H out papers. T: "Susannah - (to S): Yeah? T: "Listen to

7-A this!" S: "O.k." T asks if anyone other leaders if they

APPENDIX B
to the first leader's response.

12:30 have things to add. T: "When I gave that talk about
3-E view "omniscient" did anyone understand it?" "Yeah..." (chorus from(
the class) T explains "omniscient", gives a ~~to~~ miracle with
7-C examples from the book. Asks as to why, why
3-A do you think he "chose" that pt. of view?" (3rd person
unlimited). T asks 1st student again. She explains,
4-G he asks her more questions to clarify, draw out
6-B more information. Steven at the appropriate end of the
7-C line adds something. T comments, elaborates on it.

1-C 12:32 T: "O.K. why don't we go on." (handout)
7-D S_2 reads the question /
7-A gives an answer. T asks "Does anyone have any-
6-B thing to add to it?" There are a few responses. T
2-F begins discussing. 1/3 interrupt, T asks if she
had something to say 1/3 says yes & explains.
4-E, 2-H T praises her response, asks others to listen.
6-B 6/3 raises his hand, contributes an answer.
4-A T: "Uh-huh, Uh-huh." (he continues passing out papers.)
T calls attention to another student leader's response.
7-A ~~She~~ asks someone to paraphrase what ~~s~~ said.
Another student leader contributes, paraphrasing.
1-C 12:36 T asks to "move on to the next one"
7-D S leader says the group didn't come up with much.
2-H (to class) T "O.K. this discussion is moving along alright
1-C but the purpose is to listen." "And I want to say
again - don't talk to me, talk to the class."
7-A S asks if students have anything to add. 2 other
6-B, 6-G S leaders contribute to S leader whose group did not
come up with much. The same
7-D S leader reads another question. T asks if students
understood her. He asks her to read it again. She reads-
4-G pauses. T asks why, asks for other student responses.
12:40 The bell rings while ~~another~~ S leader is still answer-
ing.

12/11/80

3-H, 2-H There is a rush for the door. T says "class is not dismissed yet!" He asks who an unsigned papers belongs to. There is alot of noise then he says he'll ask again tomorrow and say "class is dismissed." T begins gathering his belongings.

1-C

after class. A group of 4 or 5 students stand talking. 1 of 5 says he has the 4th grade papers "a whole drawer full of his & his friends papers, that they're really funny.

12:42 T goes to speak to Mrs Jones at the left desk for some time.

APPENDIX B

1/22/81

THE WRITING ACTIVITY SURVEY SHEET

(There might be more than one activity in a class period.)

TEACHER _____ PERIOD 3 CLASS Poly Workshop

Date 1/22/81 TIME 11:00 (beginning)

IS WRIT ING ASSIGNMENT PRIMARY OR SECONDARY ACTIVITY? Pri

IF SECONDARY, DESCRIBE THE ACTIVITY IN WHICH IT IS EMBEDDED _____

TYPE OF WRITING EPISODE: (Brainstorm, Discussion, Formulation: explain
Qualifications Typing, research

please see summary sheet

TYPE OF ACTIVITY STRUCTURE: (Group, class, pupil-select m, combination, this sy:

Size of activity Group = students working indiv.
Pupil-Teacher Choice: T chose a activity but s chose topic.
Spatial Public Interaction: private/public eval.
Pupil Mobility: Use of resources: T as resource
Teacher Location: Circulating
Use of Time/Task Units: Until test deadline
Evaluation Patterns of Responsibility: T... dominated
Use of Verbal Cues: Other than teacher, how involved (low to high): 1 2 3 4 5:
T... directed ...few involved in any real discuss

TASK WRITING EPISODE BEGINS: 11:00 ENDS: 11:25

ATTACH, IF POSSIBLE, ANY FILE OR SIGNAL USED

OTHER COMMENTS:

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SUMMARY 12/11/80

APPENDIX B

English 8/ Gmade 7/ 33 students
12:00-12:40/ / Thursday 12-11-80

before class

11:58 Most of the students are already seated (which is unusual). Two male students from the hall,not in the class are calling to their friends inside.

Segment 1

12:00 The class is very noisy and the teacher attempts to call them to order. A student (7/4) reminds him of the homework and prompts him to collect it. (Student initiated, teacher directed actions seem to be fairly common in this classroom. Students take on the role of the teacher, seeing to it that he gives them the necessary directions.)

12:03 During the next part of the segment, the teacher, in response to having students voice difficulties with the Harriner's exercises, asks students to present their problems for discussion. The class becomes very attentive, with a number of students raising their hands to ask questions. The teacher writes a problematic sentence on the board, discussing it, asking students to identify the adverbs, elaborating on the student responses, and bringing in other examples. (The class attentiveness and interest perplexes me. They seem to do well with very specific tasks, ones which are highly structured as opposed to independently led,such as small group activities later during the class period. The teacher's response pattern to questions is to ask further probing questions of the student, then elaborate on the subject, and finally call on another student. He does not praise responses often, rather, he uses them on occasion to ask the class if they are paying attention and to ask them to listen.)

12:07 A few more questions follow, notably one from a student6/2, who says that "so afraid" in the sentence written on the board does not sound right. The teacher tells him that the important thing is to understand the exercise and be able to do it. (Here, it appears that the student picked up an important point and was told that the content and form of what he was reading was not important, but being able to do the work was what coun ted. To me this is parallel to learning the formulas in a math class and never understanding the theory behing them or why one is doing applying the formulas.)

At the end of the segment the teacher starts off by giving directions; he wants the class to finish up their small group work, but then switches to consulting the class as to what is to be done. He asks them if 20 minutes is sufficient for them to complete the task. (The teacher seems particularly concerned with "democracy". He not only consults the class frequently, but allows them to suggest and determine the form of the class.)

T→S(dictating)→T(discuss)

Segment 2

12:11 The teacher tells the students that they have 15-20 minutes to complete answering the questions on the handout, and the class splits up into small groups. The teacher answers student questions while at his desk and begins correcting the homework handed in at the beginning of class. The students call it to his attention that some groups have already completed their task which prompts him to ask how many groups are n ot yet done. He re-structures the class, and changes the time limit, telling those who have not yet finished to do so in the next 10 minutes. Those who are finished are to occupy themselves with reading

or studying .
12:16 The majority of the class are in their seats, some are working silently, others seem to be waiting or are conversing with friends. The remaining small groups are not concentrating on their work, one of the groups is reading a newspaper. (Despite the activity having changed somewhat for those students who were finished, the class seems flexible as many of the students simply adapt to the new directions and begin work. It is obvious that those small groups who are not yet done are holding up the others as event at the end of the segment they have not completed the handout questions.)
12:23 The groups rush to get done as the teacher tells them they have two minutes left. He continues to correct papers and answer student questions.

S ↔ S(discuss) → S(individual activity)
minimal

Segment 3
12:24 The teacher asks the small group leaders to come up to the front of the classroom and present the answers they came up with . He attempts to do two things at once as he begins passing out corrected tests and at the same time administers the group leaders. The class concentration is lost, and the noise level rises with the teacher calling on a student leader, responding to them with further questions, asking for other contributions from group leaders, and then reprimanding the class for not paying attention as he continues passing out papers.(It is here that the teacher seems to be defeating the purpose of the activity as he himself interrupts the very ~~smae-aa~~ same exercise which he is asking students to pay attention to . While the class seems inattentive, the group leaders have alot to contribute and are eager to participate, often helping eachother out.)
12:30 In response to one student answer which the teacher feels is insufficient, he goes into a brief monolog on "points of view" in order to help the group leader answer. He then proceeds to question the group leader further. When another group leader contributes an answer to the same question, the teacher uses the response to elaborate on the issue. He moves on to the next student leader (not having praised, criticized, or agreed with any student leader responses) saying "O.K. why don't we go on."The ~~sma a-~~ same pattern mentioned above continues, with the class paying little attention as the teacher continues passing out papers, calling the class to order, asking the group leaders further questions, and keeping the turns moving.
~~12:04~~ 12:40 The bell rings as one students leader is talking. She seems insistent on finishing what she has to say although the class has already headed for the door. (Here the discrepancy between class attention and the attention of the group leaders is very apparent. The leaders have a specific task to accomplish, they are asked to perform, while the class must simply listen,nothing more.)The teacher prevents the class from exiting temporarily with an administrative matter, ~~seek~~ trying to find out to whom an unsigned paper belongs. Not succeeding,he ~~si~~ dismisses the class.

T → S(directive) → S(discuss) → T → S(eliciting) → T(discuss)
↕ ↕ ↑↑ ↕ ↕
class + teacher disruptive; S contributing; class + teacher disruptive.

1) Structuring (Attachments Available) (Direct) 12/11/80	b) Explaining Assignment (Cont'd NT)	12:00/"O.K. I'll give you a couple minutes at the end of this period"	1-b	12:11/"Alright, have got your books and things ready."	12:23/"OK. Just do it. Don't worry about it."
	d) Writing assignment on board or handing out written assignment	12:03	1-D		
2) Structuring (Indirect)	a) Waiting for questions to structure assignment		2-A		
	b) Having student give assignment	12:00/student initiated, teacher directed	2-B		
	c) Asking students questions which lead to assignment	12:03	2-C		
	Questions: How, Why				
	Questions: Who, What				
Administering (Teacher or student)	d) Taking roll		2-d		
	e) Reading bulletins		2-e		
	f) Handling class interruptions		2-F		12:32
	g) Collecting books, pencils, and handing out books, pencils		2-g		
Disciplining 2)(Teacher) 12/11/80	h) Criticizing behavior publicly = COMMENT or CRITICISM	12:00 12:03	2-h	12:11 12:16	12:26 12:40 12:32 12:36
	i) Acting (sending pupil out of room, changing seat) or not dealing		2-i		
	j) Conferencing privately		2-J		

APPENDIX B

B-9

2) Desking or out-posting	(k) Students consuet TEACHER		2-k	12:11		
	(L) Students do not consuet		2-L			
2) Boarding	(M) writing assignment/ information		2-M			
	(N) Taking notes on discussion		2-N			
2) Circulating	o) Checking work		2-o			
	p) Giving help		2-p			
3) Overlapping	a) Teacher has 2 issues at one time, both in class	12:07	3-a		12:26	
	b) Teacher has 2 issues at one time, 1 in class and 1 out		3-b			
3) Shifting	c) Teacher uses quick, sharp transitions		3-c			
	d) Teacher uses slow, continuous transitions		3-d			
3) Pacing	e) Class attention to task steady (3/3)	12:03	3-e		12:26 12:30	
	f) Class attention to task erratic (3/3)		3-f			
	g) Class rushes to get done		3-g	12:22 / only small group not class		
	h) Class [illegible] direction (2/3)	12:07	3-h		12:40	
Targeting	i) Task target clear, steady To Objective	12:03	3-i			
	j) Task target changes To Objective	12:07	3-j			
	k) Task means overshadow ends (size of paper, grades)		3-k			

APPENDIX B

B-10

	(3) Slow					12/11/80
1 Responding (Direct)	a) Positive Feedback ("yes")	12:03			12:32/ nonverbal "uh-huh, uh-huh"	
	b) Negative Feedback ("no")					
	c) Answering Question					
	d) Asking Question to question/comment					
	e) Praising				12:32	
	f) Criticizing					
	g) Redirecting with verbal/ non-verbal response				12:30 12:36	
	h) Correcting					
Student Participation Giving Students Roles	(a) Roll Taker					
	(b) Group Leader					
	(c) Announcement Reader				12:23	
	(d) Paper Distributor					
	(e) Pencil Sharpener					
	(f)					
	(g)					
	(h)					
	(i)					
	(j)					
	(k)					
	(l)					

B-11

APPENDIX

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12/11/80

5) Attending (3/3) (Students)	a) Listening and following	12:03	6-A		
	b) Listening, participating by asking and commenting	12:03	6-B		12:30 12:36 12:32
	c) Not listening--silent		6-C		
	d) Not listening--talking	12:00	6-D		
	e) Not participating but listening		6-E		
	f) Doing work silently		6-F		
5) Leading Give number (students)	g) Volunteering to help other students		6-G	12:16	12:36
	h) Assisting others quietly		6-H		
6) Alone Give Number (students)	a) Seat in class		6-I		
	b) Other location in class		6-J		
	c) Outside class		6-K		
6) Group Give Number (students)	d. Group of 2-3		6-L		
	e) Group of 4-6		6-M	12:11 12:14	
	f) In class		6N		
	g) Outside of class		6-O		
6) Whole Class Give Number (students)			6-P	12:16	

APPENDIX B

B-12

		Seg. 1		Seg. 2		Seg. 3 12/11/80
7) Dialoguing	a) Teacher asks/ students answer	12:07	7-A	12:11		12:26 12:32 12:30 12:34
	b) Students ask/ student or teacher answers	12:00 12:03	7-B	12:16 12:23		12:23
Monologuing	c) Teacher lectures; students listen/don't listen	12:07	7-C			12:30
	d) Student lectures, reports; teacher and other students listen/don't listen		7-D			12:32 12:36
Exchanging	e)		7-E			
8) Student Strategies	a) Use of "terms"		8-A			
	b)		8-B			

APPENDIX B

B-13

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APPENDIX C

NWP INNER CITY TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE
FORM A

I. TEACHER PROFILE

1. School: _____ 2. Location (city) _____ 1-3

3. Age: _____ 25 years old or younger _____ 26-35 _____ 36-45 _____ 46-55 _____ 56 or over 4

4. Total years of teaching experience: _____ (years) Years in inner city schools _____ (years) years in other schools (greater urban, sub-urban, rural) _____ (years) 5-10

5. Preparation for teaching writing:

(a) How prepared do you feel to teach writing to your students this year?

_____ not at all _____ very little _____ somewhat _____ very well

_____ can't say 11

(b) What has best prepared you to teach writing? Please be as specific as possible. For example, university courses (give titles); inservices (title and sponsor); fellow English teachers (explain how they have helped), etc. 12-15

6. *CLASSES CURRENTLY TAUGHT:* Please give the following information for every class you are *currently* teaching:

Class title or Descrip.	Grade Levels	# Stud. enrolled	Avrg. Daily Attendance	Skill Description of students (Give approx. % of students at each skill level) ESL	Remedial	Average	College Prep.	Amount of Writing Instruction Given N = none L = little S = some G = great deal (circle one)	
1.								N/ L/ S/ G	16-21
2.								N/ L/ S/ G	22-47
3.								N/ L/ S/ G	48-63
4.								N/ L/ S/ G	64-79
5.								N/ L/ S/ G	17-32
6.								N/ L/ S/ G	33-48

7. Please estimate the number of hours you spend per week on the following activities:

Activity	Hours per Week	
(1) Teaching assigned classes.	_____	49-50
(2) Extra assigned school duties (clubs, hall supervision, supervision of other teachers, etc.)	_____	51-52
(3) Out of class informal tutoring and counseling.	_____	53-54
(4) Preparation for teaching classes.	_____	55-56
(5) Reading, correcting, grading and writing comments on student writing.	_____	57-58
(6) Other school-related or professional activities *(SPECIFY)*: _____	_____	59-60
_____	_____	61-62

II. DESCRIPTION OF WRITING INSTRUCTION

PLEASE CHOOSE ONE CLASS YOU ARE CURRENTLY TEACHING (OR HAVE TAUGHT IN THE PAST YEAR) AND DESCRIBE IT:

(a) Name of Class: _____ Grade(s): _____ 63-64

(b) Type of writing instruction given: (check all that apply)

_____ *typical* of what you usually do 65

_____ *intensive* or equal to the *most* writing instruction given 66

_____ *specialized* for teaching particular skills or subject matter content *(PLEASE SPECIFY THEM)*: _____ 67

_____

_____ Other kind of writing instruction *(SPECIFY)*: _____ 68

_____

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS (numbers 1 - 4) WITH INFORMATION ABOUT THIS CLASS:

1. *AMOUNT AND TYPE OF WRITING:* Please indicate the average number of *pages* of the following types your students write in a *typical* two-week period:

(A page = one-half page or more of writing on an 8-½" X 11" sheet)

(a) Notes on lecture/discussions	_____ pages	69-70
(b) Workbook exercises (multiple choice or fill-in-the-blank)	_____ pages	71-72
(c) Short (phrase-sentence) answers to study questions	_____ pages	73-74
(d) Whole discourses (letters, journal entries, essays) at least a paragraph long	_____ pages	75-76
(e) Other *(SPECIFY)*_____	_____ pages	77-78

2. Roughly how many pages of this writing could be completed in class time specifically allowed for it? _____ pages 79-80

3. How often do you assign written homework in a typical two-week period? _____ times 17-18

(Continue to answer these questions for the same class, listed in Section II).

4. *STRUCTURING OF WRITING ASSIGNMENTS:* Please use the scale below to indicate whether in most of your assignments you give students:

1 = specific directions
2 = general guidelines, allowing some student choice
3 = free student choice

(a) of topic or subject matter of written work _____ 19
(b) of genre or form of writing (e.g. letter vs. essay) _____ 20
(c) of audience to whom the writing is addressed _____ 21
(d) of length _____ 22

5. *INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES:* Please use the scale below to indicate how often you HAVE USED and/or PLAN TO USE the following activities:

1 Never	2 Seldom (1 or 2 times during term)	3 Occasionally (a few times during term)	4 Frequently (every 2-3 weeks)	5 Almost Always (weekly)	6 Not Applicable for class	
(a) *Prewriting Activities* (anything which helps students identify or organize what they write about)						
(1) Prewriting-writing (journals, lists, outlines, etc.)					_____	23
(2) Prewriting-talking (small or large group discussions, interviews, etc.)					_____	24
(3) Prewriting-reading (reading literature or other texts as a source of information)					_____	25
(4) Prewriting - Other (*SPECIFY*) _____					_____	26
_____					_____	27
(b) *Revising Activities*						
(1) In response to feedback from you (teacher)					_____	28
(2) In response to student (peer) feedback					_____	29
(3) Involving corrections of grammar, etc.					_____	30
(4) Involving major changes in content and/or organization					_____	31
(5) Other (*SPECIFY*) _____					_____	32
_____						
(c) *Practice of Specific Genre and Form*						
(1) Practice in correct standard English (word usage, subject-verb agreement, etc.)					_____	33
(2) Practice in mechanics (spelling, punctuation, etc.)					_____	34
(3) Practice in sentence combining or other forms of sentence writing					_____	35
(4) Instruction in forms of paragraph organization					_____	36
(5) Instruction in thesis formation					_____	37
(6) Instruction in essay organization					_____	38
(7) Practice in job-related writing (letters, forms, etc.)					_____	39
(8) Practice modelling or imitating literary or rhetorical forms or styles					_____	40
(9) Writing to express personal feelings and beliefs					_____	41
(10) Other (*SPECIFY*) _____					_____	
_____					_____	42

(Continue to answer these questions for the same class, listed in Section II).

1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	Seldom (1-2 Times during course)	Occasionally (a few times during course)	Frequently (every 2-3 weeks)	Almost Always (weekly)	Not Applicable for class

(d) *Practice in Variation of Subject and Audience:*

(1) practice in writing about the same subject from different points of view _____ 43

(2) completing assignment sequences: *specific* (e.g. descriptive writing) to *abstract* (e.g. persuasion or argumentation) _____ 44

(3) completing assignment sequences: writing to *personal, known audiences* and to *public* or *unknown audiences* _____ 45

(4) writing about different topics (some familiar and some unfamiliar) _____ 46

_____ _____

_____ _____ 47

( ) Other important activities or methods in teaching writing

_____ _____ 48

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

6. *RESPONSE PRACTICES:* Please CHECK (✓) the types of responses you usually make to writing of students with the following types of skills:

	ESL/Bi-dialectal Students	Remedial	Average	Advanced Coll. Prep.	
(a) assign letter grade or points					49-52
(b) correct usage/mechanics errors					53-55
(c) write comments about content (e.g. other questions to explore)					56-59
(d) write comments on or correct logic and organization					60-63
(e) write comments on stylistic features					64-67
(f) hold teacher-student writing conferences					68-71
(g) read student papers to class					72-75
(h) post or publish papers					76-79
(i) Other (*SPECIFY*) _____					80

NWP INNER CITY TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE
FORM B

I. TEACHER PROFILE

1. School: _____ 2. Location (city) _____ 1-3

3. Age: _____ 25 years old or younger _____ 26-35 _____ 36-45 _____ 46-55 _____ 56 or over 4

4. Total years of teaching experience: _____ (years) Years in inner city schools: _____ (years) Years in other schools (greater urban, suburban, rural): _____ (years) 5-10

5. Preparation for teaching writing:

(a) How prepared do you feel to teach writing to your students this year?

_____ not at all _____ very little _____ somewhat _____ very well 11

_____ can't say

(b) What has best prepared you to teach writing? Please be as specific as possible. For example, university courses (give titles); inservices (title and sponsor); fellow English teachers (explain how they have helped), etc. 12-15

(c) Briefly identify the one to three major problems you have faced in teaching writing this year and describe how you have dealt with them (1) AND/OR one to three major successes and their causes.

(2)

(3)

6. *CLASSES CURRENTLY TAUGHT:* Please give the following information for every class you are *currently* teaching:

	Class title or Descrip.	Grade Levels	# Stud. enrolled	Avrg. Daily Attendance	Skill Description of students (Give approx. # of students at each skill Level) ESL	Remedial	Average	College Prep.	Amount of Writing Instruction Given N = none L = little S = some G = great deal (circle one)	
1.									N/ L/ S/ G	16-31
2.									N/ L/ S/ G	32-47
3.									N/ L/ S/ G	48-63
4.									N/ L/ S/ G	64-79
5.									N/ L/ S/ G	17-32
6.									N/ L/ S/ G	33-48

7. Please estimate the number of hours you spend per week on the following activities:

Activity	Hours per Week	
(1) Teaching assigned classes.	_____	49-50
(2) Extra assigned school duties (clubs, hall supervision, supervision of other teachers, etc.)	_____	51-52
(3) Out of class informal tutoring and counseling.	_____	53-54
(4) Preparation for teaching classes.	_____	55-56
(5) Reading, correcting, grading and writing comments on student writing.	_____	57-58
(6) Other school-related or professional activities (*SPECIFY*): _____	_____	59-60
_____	_____	61-62

II. RESOURCES AND CONSTRAINTS FOR TEACHING WRITING:

Please use the following scale to indicate the influence of each of the items listed below on YOUR PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN TEACHING WRITING:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strong Constraint	Moderate Constraint	Little or no Influence	Moderate Resource	Strong Resource	Not Applicable

Also please add a few words to explain your rating whenever possible:

Example:

__1__ leadership of principal: refused to give release time for training

__5__ leadership of principal: supported English department reorganization of curriculum

1. *School Administration:*

_____ leadership of principal: 63

_____ guidance from central district office: 64

_____ bell schedule: 65

_____ attendance and disciplinary policies: 66

_____ pupil load: 67

_____ tracking policies: 68

_____ student and faculty opportunities for participation in school government: 69

_____ expectations for student behavior: 70

_____ Other (*PLEASE SPECIFY*): 71

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strong Constraint	Moderate Constraint	Little or no Influence	Moderate Resource	Strong Resource	Not Applicable

2. *English Department:*

_____ relations with fellow teachers: 72

_____ leadership of chairperson: 73

_____ department meetings: 74

_____ morale: 75

_____ coordination of writing curriculum: 76

_____ emphasis on writing vs. other language arts: 77

_____ encouragement of team teaching or curriculum planning 78

_____ inservice training opportunities: 79

_____ aides and lay readers: 80

_____ Other (*PLEASE SPECIFY*): 17

3. *Prominence given to teaching writing in the school by administration and other faculty:*

_____ role of writing in subjects other than English: 18

_____ publishing and displaying student writing: 19

_____ special writing skills classes: 20

_____ writing competency standards and tests 21

_____ Other (*PLEASE SPECIFY*): 22

4. *Student and family factors:*

_____ parental academic expectation: 23

_____ parental support of school disciplinary and attendance policies: 24

_____ entry skills of students: 25

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strong Constraint	Moderate Constraint	Little or No Influence	Moderate Resource	Strong Resource	Not Applicable

_____ student attitudes toward learning: 26

_____ student attendance and disciplinary problems: 27

_____ students taking leadership responsibilities: 28

_____ Other *(PLEASE SPECIFY)*: 29

5. *Conditions characteristic of inner city schools:*

_____ forced integration and busing: 30

_____ teacher strikes: 31

_____ teacher layoffs: 32

_____ funding and program cutbacks: 33

_____ physical decay of inner city areas: 34

_____ U.S. government funding support (e.g., Title I): 35

_____ Other *(PLEASE SPECIFY)*: 36

III. Everyone has his or her pet peeves about the quality of student writing. What are yours? What aspects of writing do you think are especially critical for students to learn? 37-50

No. _____

APPENDIX D

STUDENT INTERVIEW

1. What is your name? _____

2. How old are you? (years/months) _____ years _____months

3. What classes are you taking? (Please List)

Period	Name of Class	
A	_____	(21)
1	_____	(22)
2	_____	(23)
3	_____	(24)
4	_____	(25)
5	_____	(26)
6	_____	(27)

4. What final grade did you receive in your English class last year?

(Circle One): A B C D F (28)

5. What do you plan to do after completing high school? (e.g., college, work, other): _____ (29) (30) (31)

_____. (32)

6. Do you expect to be doing any writing after you complete high school?
(Circle One): YES NO (33)

Please circle the number which best describes how often you do the following things in your English class:

	Very often (5 times a week or more)	Often (4 times a week)	Sometimes (3 times a week)	Seldom (2 times a week)	Hardly Ever (1 time a week or less)	
7. Have lectures or discussion	1	2	3	4	5	(34)
8. Do workbook exercises	1	2	3	4	5	(35)
9. Write journal entries or free writing	1	2	3	4	5	(36)
10. Write essays, book reports or letters	1	2	3	4	5	(37)
11. Receive written homework assignments	1	2	3	4	5	(38)
12. Do exercises in grammar or mechanics (e.g., spelling, punctuation, subject-verb agreement)	1	2	3	4	5	(39)
13. Practice writing or combining sentences	1	2	3	4	5	(40)
14. Practice organizing paragraphs	1	2	3	4	5	(41)
15. Practice job-related writing (e.g., business letters, forms)	1	2	3	4	5	(42)
16. Practice imitating particular styles or kinds of writing	1	2	3	4	5	(43)
17. Write in classes outside your English class (e.g., history, math, P.E.)	1	2	3	4	5	(44)

Please indicate how your teacher lets you know how you did on your writing assignments:

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Hardly Ever	
18. Assigns letter grade or points	1	2	3	4	5	(45)
19. Corrects usage/mechanics errors	1	2	3	4	5	(46)
20. Writes comments about content	1	2	3	4	5	(47)
21. Writes comments on organization	1	2	3	4	5	(48)
22. Writes comments on writing style	1	2	3	4	5	(49)
23. Holds teacher-student writing conferences	1	2	3	4	5	(50)
24. Reads student papers to class	1	2	3	4	5	(51)
25. Posts or publishes papers	1	2	3	4	5	(52)
26. Other (SPECIFY)_____ _____	1	2	3	4	5	(53-54)

Please indicate how often you do the following kinds of writing outside of school:

	Very Often (5 times a week or more)	Often (4 times a week)	Sometimes (3 times a week)	Seldom (2 times a week)	Hardly Ever (1 time a week or less)	
27. Make lists	1	2	3	4	5	(55)
28. Write cards, letters or notes	1	2	3	4	5	(56)
29. Keep a journal or diary	1	2	3	4	5	(57)
30. Write poetry or stories	1	2	3	4	5	(58)
31. Fill out forms (e.g., job applications)	1	2	3	4	5	(59)
32. Other (indicate what kind of writing): _____ _____	1	2	3	4	5	(60-61)

33. Do you ever receive written communications (e.g., letters or cards from family or friends)? (Circle One): YES NO (62)

34a. Does anyone you know outside of school write regularly? (Circle One): YES NO (63)

34b. If yes, what is that person's relationship to you (e.g., mother, friend): _____ (64-65)

34c. What kind of writing does this person do? _____ (65-66)

Data Type _____ (70-72)
Day: _____ (73)
Month: _____ (74)
Date: _____ (75-76)

VII. All students in observed class compared to students in other classes this year:

A. Skills strengths and weaknesses: typical or atypical? Explain/describe:

B. Motivation and effort:

C. General behavior:

VIII. Students in observed class compared to students 4-5 years ago:

A. Skills strengths and weaknesses:

B. Motivation and effort:

C. General behavior:

V. Ratings of skill and behavior:

A. Please indicate how much of a problem the student has with the following:

	Not a Problem		Somewhat a Problem		A Major Problem	Not Applicable
a. selecting a topic	1	2	3	4	5	( )
b. taking class notes	1	2	3	4	5	( )
c. thinking through ideas before writing	1	2	3	4	5	( )
d. actually sitting down to write	1	2	3	4	5	( )
e. deciding who is the audience	1	2	3	4	5	( )
f. using correct grammar and punctuation	1	2	3	4	5	( )
g. spelling	1	2	3	4	5	( )
h. editing and rewriting drafts	1	2	3	4	5	( )
i. style and originality	1	2	3	4	5	( )
j. logic and organization	1	2	3	4	5	( )
k. getting papers in on time	1	2	3	4	5	( )

B. CLASS BEHAVIOR: Please use the following scale to indicate how this student's behavior compares to other students in class (Add descriptions when possible)

1 lowest — 2 — 3 average — 4 — 5 highest — 6 not applicable

1. Conscientiousness and effort:____
   a) Most motivated by:
2. Appropriateness of behavior:____
   a) Most easily controlled by:
3. Curiousity (above and beyond what is required):____
4. Social interaction with other students in class:____

C. OTHER LANGUAGE SKILLS: Please describe the student's other language skills, in comparison to the other students in class:

1 Weakest — 2 — 3 Average — 4 — 5 Best — 6 Not applicable

1. Oral participation: discussions:____
2. Oral participation: small groups:____
3. Oral participation: teacher-student conferences:____
4. Reading---aloud in class:____
5. Reading---completion/comprehension of silent reading assignments:____

VI. Other descriptive information/comments:

TEACHER INTERVIEW: PART TWO AND THREE

I. Skills and knowledge about writing

1. What are the most important writing skills that you teach (to the class observed)?
2. What is the most important knowledge about writing, or about improving writing skills that you teach (to the class observed)?

PROBES:

a) What do you repeatedly emphasize OR "harp on" in this class?

b) What do you tell students about why learning to write is valuable?

3. Are there any SEQUENCES which you follow in teaching writing skills?

PROBES:

a) assignment sequences

b) skill sequences

4. Are there regular ROUTINES you follow...daily, weekly, for the semester...

II. WORK ENVIRONMENT

1. Under what conditions do students seem to do their best work on writing assignments?

PROBES: Do you use particular strategies related to

a) assignment guidelines (choice of subject, length of writing, etc.)

b) activity structures (large group, small groups, individual work)

c) time limits for completing assignments

d) chance to work inside the classroom (VS for homework)

e) response or feedback on writing assignments (e.g. comments and/or grading strategy)

f) room arrangement (arrangement of the desks, position of supplies and books, position of teacher's desk, etc.)

III. RAPPORT AND MOTIVATION of students

1. How do you establish rapport with students?
2. How do you motivate them to do their best work?

PROBES:

a) individual attention/conferences

b) linking of classwork with "real world"...jobs, colleges, etc.

c) grading or point giving strategies

d) particular kinds of subject matter

IV. Questions on individual assignments

(go through each day recorded in the two week log and identify the following)

1. Purposes of each assignment:

PROBE: after getting statement of purposes...ask whether the assignment focuses on processing, modelling, and/or distancing functions

2. Follow up of each assignment

-teacher marking or response (including public/private evaluation)

-grading or credit given

3. Source of ideas for the assignments

V. PLANNING PRACTICES

1. Choose one assignment from the two week log and ask the following:

a) Where did you get the idea for this lesson?

b) What form did your plan for this lesson take BEFORE you started teaching?---notes, outline, journal, books or materials

c) What use did you make of this plan WHILE TEACHING the lesson?

d) How did you communicate this plan to the students?

e) How was the lesson different from the plan?

-Were these discrepancies typical of those that have occurred between other lesson plans and lessons? If not, describe other discrepancies

-Was it easier or harder than usual to adjust or adapt this lesson plan? Explain.

f) If you taught this lesson again, would you change any part of it? Describe.

2. Was this lesson typical of your usual planning style?

Describe your usual planning style:

-how many days before a lesson is taught do you prepare for it?

-how do you handle unexpected events...do you develop contingency plans day by day?

-do you continue to adjust your longer range plans day by day, to take into account student response, school-based interruptions, etc.

-when and where do you work on plans

-how much time do you spend preparing for lessons

-what do you first begin with...an activity you want to do; a skill students are having problems mastering, a goal you want students to accomplish, etc.

TEACHER INTERVIEW: PART THREE

VI. IMPACT OF SCHOOL POLICIES ON Teaching of Writing

1. What policies have an impact on your teaching of writing? Give EXAMPLES.
   - -proficiency exam and standards
   - -department-specified curricula
   - -class schedules
   - -encouragement of collaboration among fellow teachers
   - -opportunities for inservice, professional development
   - -supplies and materials
2. Which would you most like to change OR NOT change? Why...
3. What could be done to improve or strengthen your teaching?
4. Are there problems in the way a teacher's role is defined? EXAMPLES...
5. What have been your greatest resources this year in teaching writing? How have these helped you?

VII. School ENVIRONMENT

1. Overall, would you say that the environment for working/teaching/learning is better or worse than 4-5 years ago?
   -Give specific examples, if possible.
2. What do you think are the causes of any change in the school work environment?
   -Give specific examples, if possible.

VIII. Your greatest successes...

1. Can you give some examples of lessons that will ALWAYS work...
2. Can you identify your GREATEST TEACHING MOMENTS this year?

IX. OTHER COMMENTS

1. Is there anything else you would like to add about your teaching philosophy, or the particular class we observed which would help us understand your teaching methods more fully?

THE LOGS

The two logs have different purposes: (1) the four day log provides a focus for student interviews on one assignment from class; and (2) the two week log provides a focus for patterns of planning over time.

FIRST LOG: The six to eight case study students will be interviewed on one assignment from class; they will be asked to respond to the following questions on a selected assignment:

(1) What is the purpose of the assignment?

(2) What does the assignment ask you to do?

(3) What problems will you have with the assignment?

(4) What is easy for you to do?

(5) How will you start?

(6) What are your favorite assignments?

(7) Which assignments usually give you problems?

These questions are open-ended, and the interview will not take more than 20-25 minutes. Therefore, two students can be interviewed in a period. If more time is needed, then the research assistant will attempt to schedule time during lunch or before school. The teacher logs on the four selected days will help the research assistant frame the questions. The teacher logs will describe the assignment, explain the purposes, evaluate results, and provide, if appropriate, the source for the idea of the assignment. These comments can be very brief or long, depending on how much time the teacher has and whether the assignment needs explanation.

SECOND LOG: The second log, a description and explanation of whole class planning over a two week period, may include the four dates above. On the other hand, a teacher may decide to use another two week period for the second log because the other two week period has fewer interruptions of the class or has an extended unit of particular interest to the teacher. The purpose of the second log is to follow a teacher's pattern of planning over an extended period of time. For each day in the two week period, the teacher should indicate the plan, the actual lesson, the changes which were necessary, an assessment of what happened, and the source of the idea, if possible. Include ditto sheets, texts, and other materials used. These will be copied and returned. This second log might be as short as five or six sentences per day or al long as two pages per day. Again, length will be determined by how much time the teacher has and how much explanation the activities need.

REMEMBER: The time period for the logs may overlap.

FORM: The form should be whatever is comfortable for the teacher. Handwritten notes on notebook paper or in journals, roughly typed copy, or audio-tape--all of these forms are appropriate. Finished copy is not required or expected.

Appendix G

Local Teachers

Name_____

I. Please state (and number) your COURSE GOALS related to writing instruction.

Name _____

STATE CURRICULUM GOALS

I. Please use the following rating scale to indicate the amount of emphasis you give to the writing skills and knowledge listed below:

1 = NO emphasis or attention
2 = almost no emphasis
3 = some emphasis
4 = a great deal of emphasis (i.e. it is harped on)

____ A. To state opinions and recapitulate those of others orally and in writing with opportunity for response

____ B. To write pieces for many situations: practical, personal, aesthetic, and creative --in clear, precise language

____ C. To be aware of and use the conventions of writing and speaking appropriate to audience and purpose

____ D. To recognize the power and importance of order in spoken and written language

____ E. To examine and discuss oral/written responses to ideas as a way of recognizing valuing of self and others

____ F. To use language competently

____ G. To learn to think logically as well as intuitively

____ H. To develop language skills to a degree enabling the formulation of questions

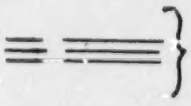
II. For any goal that you marked with a 3 or a 4, please write its letter next to the skill it relates to (on p. 2 of this set).

Name _____

SEQUENCE OF SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE

DIRECTIONS: Please take the list of skills/knowledge and arrange as many of the items as you can in a SEQUENCE, going from MOST BASIC to MOST SOPHISTICATED.

You may see that some items seem to include other items or be related in some way. Please indicate those related groups using

brackets  OR circles OR . . .

You may add items which you believe are important in the sequence but don't appear in the list given to you.

SKILLS SEQUENCE: Most Basic to Most Sophisticated

Item #	Brief Descriptor
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Name_____

Writing Skills and Knowledge

I. Please use the following rating scale to indicate the amount of emphasis you give to the writing skills and knowledge listed below:

1 = NO emphasis or attention
2 = almost no emphasis
3 = some emphasis
4 = a great deal of emphasis (i.e. it is harped on)

____ 1. Paragraph form
____ 2. Cohesion
____ 3. Individual responsibility
____ 4. Clarity of thought (Does it make sense?)
____ 5. Sense of audience
____ 6. Expository writing
____ 7. Cultural awareness and knowledge
____ 8. The writing process (including prewriting and revision)
____ 9. Critical thinking skills
____10. Clarity of expression
____11. Sense of purpose
____12. Details, development of ideas
____13. Basic human values: tolerance, respect for others
____14. Self-correcting; self-editing
____15. Diction; word choice; vocabulary
____16. Basic skills: mechanics
____17. Basic skills: sentence writing
____18. Journalistic forms
____19. Style
____20. Paragraph structure
____21. Spelling
____22. Essay structure
____23. Creativity of thought
____24. Ease of self expression
____25. Forms and types of writing

II. Following each item above that you numbered either a 3 or a 4, please place the number of your personal course goal which relates to it.

Appendix H

PRINCIPALS/INSTRUCTIONAL VICE PRINCIPALS (IVPs)

I (Goal Definition)

Are there any school goals, objectives for writing?

What things do you consider when you set up goals for students in writing?

(possible answers: State Board of Education's English Framework; District's goals and learning expectations; Proficiency Exams; class size; number of teachers; students stated needs; ...)

Do school goals differ from District goals and objectives for writing? How?

II (Problem)

What do you see as the biggest writing problem in your school?
What do you think is the main reason that these things are problems?

Do problems vary by grade level?

Do problems vary according to the kinds of students--i.e. minimum competency students, below minimum competency students, average students, and so on?

III (Approach)

How do you decide which classes should focus on writing?

Can you create the courses you need? How is this done?

Can you name the courses anything you want?

Are other classes (like History) supposed to focus on writing? Which ones?

How much say do you have about whether specific courses count toward graduation requirements? About which ones satisfy the writing requirement?

What if one of your teachers wanted to try an innovative program in writing--how would that happen? What kinds of things would be most influential in getting the school to support such a program? Would you run into difficulties with implementing such a program?

What about the District--any problems with them?

IV (Evaluation)

How do you evaluate your writing program?

Is there such a thing as school-wide testing for writing proficiency? How are tests given?

IV (Evaluation, cont.)

Given the test results, how would you assess the strengths and weaknesses of your school's writing program?

Do these tests pose any particular problems for the program?

Are you accountable to the District Office in any way in regard to your writing curriculum? Student achievement in writing? Teacher effectiveness in teaching writing?

V (Professional Personnel Resources)

Do you select the teachers who teach writing? How? What do you look for?

Do you evaluate writing teachers? How? How would you asses your writing teachers?

Do you ever have problems with teachers who teach writing? What? What can you, as principal/IVP, do about this?

VI (Student Resources)

How is an English class make-up, in terms of students, determined?

What are your attitudes about tracking students in writing courses?

Are there any policies that directly address students (i.e. school policies, District policies, State policies) that should be changed?

Are there any such policies that you've changed since you've been here?

Do you think any students in this school get neglected or miss out as far as having access to resources and getting special opportunities goes?

What is the best student input you could get regarding the writing curriculum? Do you get it?

VII (General Questions on Change)

Would you want things to be different in your school's writing program? How so?

Is there anything that you as principal/IVP could do about this?

TEACHERS

I (Goal Definitions)

Who determines what you cover in your English class? How do you figure out what to cover in regard to teaching your students to write in a given English course? (i.e. what content to cover, what learning activities to use).

Do you have an overall framework that you go by? How do you come up with such a framework? (If appropriate) ... Do you ever use resources (books, guidelines) for this kind of thing? Do you ever consider:

The English Framework from the State Board of Education?
The District's guidelines for English and learning expectancies in writing?
Proficiency exams?
Recommendations from the principal or IVP?
Other teachers' methods? (If so, do you know where they get their idea?)
In-service workshops and the like?

Which of these have the biggest impact on the objectives you set for your class? Why do you think this (these) have such a great influence?

Are there any policies that prevent you from doing things that you'd like to do in a writing class?

II (Problem)

Do your students have writing problems?
What's the biggest writing problem in your class?

(probes: mechanics, student's understanding of what writing is for, content development, learning different writing situations ...)

What do you think is the main reason that these things are such problems?

Do problems vary according to the kind of student? How?

III (Approach)

What do you see as the most important thing you can do for your students in terms of their writing? How do you do this?

What about classroom set-up--who decides how to set up your classroom the way it is? (i.e. the desks and physical things, and whether to use small groups, say, and the like). How is it decided?

Are there any students who have really individual writing needs? What do you do about them?

What if you wanted to try something new, innovative, in writing for a semester, what would you have to do? Would you run into any difficulties? What?

IV (Evaluation)

Do you evaluate your students' writing? How?

Do you evaluate their overall writing achievement? How?
Do you use standardized tests? Which ones?

What do you think of them?
Do they influence what happens in your classroom--i.e. the curriculum, or your approach?

Are you personally accountable to the IVP or the District in any way in regard to what you do with teaching writing and how you do it?

V (Professional Personnel Resources)

Do you play a role in selecting English teachers? If so, what?

Are you evaluated? How?

Is the procedure satisfactory? If not, what would you suggest? Can you make such suggestions in this school?

Do you feel you know enough about teaching writing?
Do your students get pretty much a fair understanding of what you think they should know?

VI (Student Resources)

What are your attitudes about tracking students in writing courses?

Are there any policies that directly address students (i.e. school policies, District policies, State policies) that should be changed?

Are there any such policies that you yourself have influenced to change?

Do any of your students ever miss out on using resources or getting special opportunities? Why?

What's the best student input you could get regarding the writing curriculum?
Do you get it?

VII (General Questions on Change)

Would you want the teaching of writing in your school to be any different in any way? How so?

Is there anything that you, as a teacher, could do about this in this school?
What about in other schools or in other districts?

DISTRICT

I (Goal Definition)

The District puts out a lot of material for the schools to use--language arts guidelines, learning expectations in writing for each grade, a proficiency exam that includes writing proficiency. What kinds of things do you have to consider when you write up these documents?

(possible answers: advisory committees, including parent/teacher/consultants; State Board of Education English Framework; input from individual schools; test results; number of students per teacher; number of English teachers per school; ...)

(To Interviewer: show a sample of grade-level expectations)
How do you set up writing expectancies like this one? How do people use these documents? i.e. What is its function in the schools? Specifically, how do principals/teachers/superintendents use them?

What do you require of students (in terms of writing) for graduation?

What influences this requirement? Is it coordinated with other requirements set by, say, the State Board of Education?

II (Problem)

What do you see as the biggest problem that students in the district have with writing?

(possible answers: basic writing concepts are not understood; Black English interferes; mechanics are bad; students don't develop their ideas; ...)

What is the cause of the problem?

Do problems vary by grade level?

Do problems vary according to the kind of student--i.e. minimum competency students; below minimum competency students; average students.

III (Approach)

What approaches are needed to meet these problems?

Do you know of any particular excellent secondary programs in the system?

Say a school wants to try an innovative writing program--does this ever happen? What kinds of things would be most influential in getting the District to support such programs?

IV (Evaluation)

There is a District-wide assessment--do you use this to evaluate writing programs? If not, what do you use?

Are there assessments used to evaluate school programs as a matter of routine? If not, what do you use?

How do you know whether schools are meeting your objectives?

Would you say that they <u>are</u> meeting the District's objectives?

Tell me about standardized tests on writing achievement that come from the District. What are their advantages? Disadvantages?

(To Interviewer: show a sample CAP standardized test)
Are there any other tests like this one that you use?

V (Professional Personnel Resources)

If you were hiring for a secondary English teacher, what would you look for first? Second?

What are your staff development programs for English teachers like? What do you cover? Are these programs evaluated? Who evaluates them? Are English teachers involved in evaluation?

How do they evaluate these programs?

Where are the programs located? District Office? Other places?

VI (Student Resources)

How is an English class's student make-up determined?

Should English classes be scheduled by student ability more than they are?

Are policies that address things like student discipline adequate?

Do funding sources (like Title I) ever require student grouping that opposes the District philosophy for class make-up (e.g. gifted, special ed, etc.)?

Do all students get equal resources and equal opportunities in the system? If not, why not?

Do the students, individually, ever influence policy? How?

VII (General Change)

Would you want the system to be different regarding your input to writing instruction? What is your first input?

Appendix I

Categories of Error Markings*

Run-on sentences
Comma splice
Absence of past tense
S-V agreement
Apostrophe:possessive and contracting
Omitted articles
Wrong articles
Absence of plural endings
Aspect use of "to be"
Spelling:homophones and homonyms
Other spelling
Possessive pronouns
Pronoun agreement
Pronoun case
Commas: clauses
Commas: series
Infinitive form
Wrong relative pronoun
Wrong word form
Wrong preposition
Change in tense
Omitted word
Comma (adverb, parenthetical)

Punctuation: This includes marked indicating lack of or unnecessary use of standard punctuation. It also includes error marks for form, e.g. paragraph indentation, placement of letter salutation, spelling out of numerals. (Sometimes the same error --omitted word, for example--occurred more than once in the same paper. If the teacher marked the error twice it has been coded twice.)

Editing--this category includes strike-outs, rearrangement, or additions of words or phrases. It also includes the markers "repetition" and "awk."

No. 21

Punctuation	18
Run-on	1
Absence of Past Tense	1
Absence of Plural Ending	3
Spelling	10
Wrong Word	1
Omitted Word	1
Total	35

No. 31

Punctuation	15
Absence of P.T.	11
Spelling	15
Editing	1
Total	42

No. 51

Punctuation	12
Run-on	4
Absence of P.T.	1
Wrong Word	1
Change In Tense	15

Omitted Word	2
Editing	22
Total	57

No. 61

Punctuation	30
Run-on	4
Spelling	6
Change in Tense	1
Omitted Word	6
Editing	5
Total	52

No. 71

Punctuation	5
Wrong Word	2
Editing	2
Total	9

No. 41

Punctuation	18
Spelling	2
Change in Tense	2
Editing	11
Total	33